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Obituary

JACKIE COULTER

It is with grief and regret that we record in this number (April) of *Sergeant* Captain J. L. S. Coulter (1914 - 1961) (R.C.S.(Eng) L.R.C.P. R.N.) (English) (British) at-Lie. By recording this obituary notice in the Editorial we pay tribute to a former Editor of the Journal who from 1955 to 1961 managed its affairs with skill and devotion.

Jackie Coulter was one of the outstanding personalities of the Medical Branch whose name is recorded in an honoured place in Medical History in connection with Christopher Lloyd of Volantia III and IV of *Islanders and the Navy*.

Not only was he a brilliantly accomplished writer but as an often quoted speaker he was inclined to roam. As an administrator he was fastidious and forthright, completely confident and at all times proud of the Service to which he gave unswerving the best years of his life. Most of all however he was appreciated for his quiet unobtrusive sense of fun, his frank, lucidities, his good-humour and his knowledge of horse and dog racing. He was an example to all those who have him of elegant, sophisticated, integrity and achievement. He had recommended that one should live simply — Jackie Coulter certainly followed his advice.

Following his retirement from the Navy in 1961 he joined *Armour Pharmacy* Ltd. and we watched his progress with affectionate interest. We were distressed to hear of the illness which led to his arrival in *Armour Island*. Unfortunately, following a letter from him in June 1966 (*Editorial* Vol. LII p. 54) we lost track of him until we saw the announcement of his death.

Our deepest sympathy goes to his wife, Frances, at her great loss.

THE PSYCHIATRIST'S DILEMMA

In recent issues of the Journal a number of articles have undertaken a dilemma which is today causing Naval psychiatrists considerable anxiety. Sergeant Captain Walker's forthright paper in this issue further emphasises the problem.

Naval Boards in the hospitals are frequently asked to decide a way for psychiatric illness for which stress of Service life is frequently a pre-disposing factor. They present themselves to the Board as apparently fit young men likely to remain so in civilian life. In these days of manpower shortage it would be of advantage if these patients could be rehabilitated and returned to duty. The adverse effect which this could have on the morale of the ship's company, especially in small ships, has been pointed out and the personal system certainly seems to be a policy of cutting losses as far as the Service is concerned. It must, however, be very disheartening to the psychiatrist to find his case in that way without having a real opportunity to effect a permanent cure.

Psychiatrists themselves seem divided between acceptance and rejection that moment and it is quite obvious that a very real problem exists today. Acceptance

leads to avoiding and rejecting all "conventional" and "old" medicine. In medicine there can only be all or nothing, either "progressive" and modern, or the challenge to the physician.

SIR FRANK CHALKER

We had hoped to publish a medical case on the subject of Sir Frank Chalker who was a patient in R.N. Hospital, Haslemere in June 1933. Sir Frank and Lady Chalker have however, most kindly asked the publishers to delete Sir Frank's medical history in the magazine, saying that they did not wish to be divulged to our readers. We must of course follow their wishes.

ANNUAL MEETING OF THE BRITISH MEDICAL ASSOCIATION AT
EASTBOURNE JUNE 18-20 1934

The Naval Symposium will take place on Tuesday June 19. Full particulars will be given in the British Medical Journal via its right weekly in advance, and all serving and past members of the Royal Naval Medical and Research Service are eligible to attend. It is hoped that many will do so.

Articles

THE BOND: CURRENT CONCEPTS IN THE TREATMENT OF DECOMPRESSION SICKNESS*

By David H. Clark

Notions of joint-vascular bonds in compressed-air workers is the condition already familiar to orthopaedic surgeons and recently discussed by your President, Elton Professor R. Harris and others in the *Journal of Bone and Joint Surgery* (McCallum and Walker 1966). Your President, Mr Jackson Barrett has chosen me to present an outline of decompression sickness in its worst stages since this frequently provides the bony lesions.

The bond is an occupational disease which is always preceded by a relative rate of environmental pressure. Arises from the altitude which is at risk but these bonds occur at the low pressures of high altitude and are, in a general rule, caused by increasing to surface. These occur in bonds rarely present as a clinical problem outside the Armed Forces. Compressed air workers and divers on the one on the other hand, are exposed to very high environmental pressures and these bonds appear on returning to atmospheric pressures at the surface. Such decompression sickness is quite common and is by no means confined to members of the Armed Forces. The compressed air workers are those who work in a high pressure environment, working being immersed in water and include many in this country who are employed building tunnels for tunnels under Southampton Water or tunnels for building bridges and piers and even, though at minimal 100, air gases and their team, who work in hyperbaric operating chambers. The divers include not only the professionals, those in the Royal Navy and those who work on drilling rigs in the North Sea but also leisure fishermen and amateur sports divers in shallower coastal waters. Such diving is not confined to the sea and serious decompression sickness occurred recently on a lake on the island of Lough Lough down a well in Afghanistan.

From a large point in the more common manifestations of acute decompression sickness. These pains were first described in 1845 by Truog and later Piel and Winkler (1834) noted that they were caused by returning to the pressure at which they had been working. It was suggested that the pain on decompression was due to bubbles formed in the body from the gases which had dissolved in the tissue fluids during the exposure to raised pressure. This hypothesis is still cited today.

One hundred years ago diving bellows were being used by the sponge divers men of the Greek Anadolopoli. Dr Gill who had been with the sponge divers in 1869 (Gill 1872) described a relationship between the rapid ascent of pain in the left shoulder and a history of hard work with that arm. He also described one man in whom paralysis began twenty four hours after surfacing but which steadily

*Paper read at the Spring Meeting of the British Orthopaedic Association held at the Royal Naval Hospital, Portsmouth, 13th-15th April 1967 and published in brief form in *The Journal of Bone and Joint Surgery* 49B: 266-268 1967.

respirated until two weeks later, he had fully recovered. In the following year, Leroy de Merivall (1889) reported ten deaths in 24 divers working deeper than 45 m (150 feet). In a second group diving at depths less than 35 m (115 feet) and working constantly taking about thirty five minutes there were no fatalities. Later still working at these depths when the Greek sponge divers decreased their routine to less than two minutes symptoms reappeared and five out of three hundred died.

ETIOLOGY AND PATHOLOGY

Although the uptake of inert gas by the body is fairly well understood, no details are known of the dynamic processes. The formation of bubbles, whether they are in the tissues or the blood, or their subsequent behavior and elimination. The strongest evidence in favor of bubbles is their response to treatment by the respiration of pure oxygen. Much needs to be known of the pathology of bubbles, or even if there is to be any reliance on the prevention and treatment of decompression sickness and in particular of its early forms. Another example of bone is the delayed form of decompression sickness causing stiffness symptomatic usually after the common hypobaric bubbles. Reversible changes in one such lesion has been reported (Diefman *et al.* 1964). Bone necrosis has been shown to be more common in those compressed air workers who have been treated for joint bends (MacIsaac and Winkler 1964). The incidence of bone damage in divers is not known, and although it is thought not to exist in the Royal Navy, the recent findings of radiological lesions in 100 per cent of some groups of Japanese divers (Ohta 1967), has aroused the urgency of the current study of professional divers.

Years of experience and research have led to the relative safety of present day decompression schedules which determine the rate at which one may return safely to atmosphere, pressure. In their use bends or latent sickness have been reduced to a small incidence of less than one per cent of all decompressions, but even the lightest still causes a number of serious events, and this volume is late the majority of workers have a bend.

The current tables for divers might appear to be much safer than those for compressed air workers because the time allowed in the water is severely limited and the rates of decompression are much slower. Although bends are virtually unknown to those divers who adhere to the compressed air tables, the apparent preponderance of decompression is not the provision of a larger safety margin, but comes from more unknown causes, men, land barometers, in the air schedules which are in compressed air or in isotopic with safety. Unfortunately some divers consider these decompression exposures to be a waste of valuable time underwater and ignore the safety they offer. The random nature of decompression sickness is such that these persons may surface on many occasions without trouble until one day full of satisfaction, following a routine dive, they develop decompression sickness.

For the growing number of divers who need to go deeper than about 75 m (250 feet) breathing mixtures of oxygen and helium decompression is more than from bends. In 1965 when after months of trials in dry compress in chambers,

the decompression Royal Navy made 26 successful dives for up to one hour to depths between 177 and 187 m (580 and 600 feet); the incidence of bends was more than 50 per cent.

When the diver returns at the surface he appears to be perfectly well. Most symptoms begin within the first hour but some may be delayed for as long as several days later. With severe exposures to pressure the latent period becomes shorter and, during deep dives, diving on exhalation, symptoms may arise during the decompression while the diver is still at or near atmospheric pressure. Whether it occurs at the surface or during the decompression, the pain may arise in one of two characteristic ways: it may occur suddenly during or immediately after a drop in pressure and this may be related to a painful expansion in accordance with Boyle's law of a previously silent bubble or, more commonly, the pain begins gradually after a latent period at the stoppage and this may be associated with an expansion of the bubble by the continued diffusion movement of gas from the surrounding tissues.

The most commonly affected joint is the wrist flexing compartment as is the shoulder, but persons who spend a much longer time under pressure develop more divers' breathing apparatus and compressed air workers tend to have bends more frequently in the knee. The pain is usually a diffuse ache centered over a large joint but seeming to radiate up and down the limb. Occasionally a diver may develop the late wrist pain, constantly the direction of hyperextension. Usually there are no observed physical signs to be elicited.

There are other manifestations which if present do not suggest treatment but which tend to confirm the diagnosis for instance a modified Hinkley scale on the wrist which is considered to be due to vascular injury and edema.

Of these persons presenting with pain in a joint as they go to bed they may have other more serious symptoms. The possible manifestations are many and are determined by the size of the hypothetical bubbles. One is due to damage most of laboratory functions with variable dyspnoea, nausea and vomiting, some times associated with stridor and partial asphyxia. Cerebral damage may account for almost any behavior symptoms or behavior but more commonly visual blurring, vomiting, homonymous hemianopia, homonymous optic or trigeminal headache. The most serious development in a person presenting with joint pain is the embolic stage of paralytic—perhaps over the joint and later of muscular weakness in that limb. It is less than half an hour the untreated patient may have become a paraplegic. In a few persons these severe forms of decompression sickness are the presenting symptoms and there is no joint pain. Also commonly without joint or joint pain is the respiratory type of decompression sickness called "chokes" which may implicate the later stages of acute decompression sickness when hypoxaemia follows loss of protein through damaged capillaries throughout the body.

Asper have observed the delayed form of decompression sickness may be less diagnosed radiologically while such symptoms first but it is well not unusual for it to be diagnosed following the sudden collapse of the joints sometime later during a treatment measure.

DIAGNOSIS

The diagnosis of acute decompression sickness is usually obvious, but doubt may arise in some cases who have had a transiently mild decompression. Such doubt could delay treatment and allow time for the development of complications. Thus the rapid response of the doubtful case to recompression is not only diagnostic but is also the most clinical management.

TREATMENT

Treatment by immediate recompression reduces the size of the hypodermal bubble and when the patient has been returned to full forces a relatively slow return to atmosphere, pressure allows time for adequate elimination of the excess inert gas. The only exception to this is the treatment of asphyx, nervous of bone. The treatment of the joints involves focus is osteoporosis and the relative status of nitrogen bone grafts to anatomic repair, arthritis and the insertion of metallic prostheses have been discussed recently by members of the Medical Research Council Decompression Sickness Panel (McCallum and Walder, 1963).

Recompression of a patient with decompression sickness can never lead to full forces unless required. The amount of recompression required is determined by the response to treatment and it has been found that the depth of relief of symptoms may occasionally be greater than the depth of the previous dive. The times and depths to be followed on such strategies are based on the U.S. Navy's treatment tables (Van der Aue et al., 1959). If joint pain is the only symptom and has been relieved by 60 feet, U.S.N. Treatment Table I may be followed during which air is breathed from 100 feet to 60 feet and then 100 per cent oxygen to the surface (Figure 1). The Royal Navy has adopted the alternative Air Table. This more prolonged decompression is of value in itself and the table suffering from 40 feet to five minutes may be considered even in oxygen administered longer. A more recent regime (Goodman and Workman, 1963) uses pure oxygen at a maximum depth 60 feet. This is a continued therapeutic schedule and its depth time course should be compared with that for a compressed air worker whose head is also relieved at 60 feet (Goffing et al., 1963) a successful schedule in which oxygen is not used.

If the pain in the joint is not relieved till a pressure greater than 60 feet of air where the diver is recompressed to 140 feet and a longer table (U.S.N. Table II, BA, or R.N. VII) is used.

The more serious symptoms require more aggressive therapy. Tunnel workers are treated in a pressure slightly greater than the depth of their relief from space suits and a lower rate of decompression is used (Figure 2). For divers 140 feet is again the recommended depth of recompression, but an even slower ascent is given. The milder cases are treated on Table 3C and the more difficult cases who may need to spend up to two hours at 140 feet on Table 3D. The standard decompression technique (Goodman and Workman, 1963) maximum oxygen for an hour at 60 feet and during three hours decompression, has proved successful for some syndromes) even but further clinical assessment is still required. We would not expect a 10 cent bubble following very deep dry bottom dives since even



Figure 1: Percentage of women who reported being in a dating relationship with a partner who was violent to them, by age group.



Figure 2: Percentage of women who reported being in a dating relationship with a partner who was violent to them, by age group.

the standard recompression tables are not sufficient. It may, however, prove to be the right treatment for satisfactorily decompression sickness following shallowest multiple compressed air dives.

After a deep dive the depth of onset of symptoms may be deeper than the standard therapeutic depth, 140 feet, but there are only a few compression chambers that will exceed about 240 feet. Royal Naval divers have needed to be re-compressed on any bottom in much greater depths than that and therefore deep ascents can be done only where there are suitable chambers. In cases in which treatment begins even before the diver has reached the surface, recompression is taken to the depth of complete relief of symptoms. There is then a twenty to thirty minute stay at that pressure before a slow decompression. Decompression sickness in one patient was not cured until he had been lowered in a subsurface chamber to 450 feet on the open sea (Figure 5).

A member of a Royal Naval deep sea diving team aged 25 died on 10th May 1961 in a subsurface chamber to 450 ft. (140 m.) for 40 minutes. He had a medical examination before and 90 feet (27 m.) after. His 20 minutes on open sea worked outside the accepted normal decompression time interval set at the commercial chamber and then he was transferred under pressure to a dry chamber and treated deep. At 220 ft. after four hours decompression on the experimental schedule, he showed the onset of decompression sickness in a further 10 feet lower. He described vertigo in one transient on ascending and in the other transient when he lay. He had vertigo and also some weakness on the left. He appeared calm, was conscious and had symptoms towards the left. He was immediately recompressed to 200 ft. the maximum depth of the deep sea chamber was then was no significant improvement. The only other 40 minutes his deepest exposure was to return him and to ascend to the sea in a subsurface chamber. This further took a further 15 minutes during which 500 ft. was still decompression to the surface. The subsurface chamber was then lowered in the sea to 475 ft. where he, patient had a sudden and complete relief of all his symptoms. The entire acute decompression decompression though recompressed was spent from a point fixed in the sea down, slow and successful.

The subsequent decompression is a rate determined by the condition of the patient and after the experience of 50 such cases, we found that most could return safely to the surface if an exponential curve was followed. This exponential law, a half-time of about 15 hours and corresponds to a drop of absolute pressure on the ratio 1.5 to 1 over a period of five hours (Barnard 1967). Thus the curve entered at any depth after the onset of symptoms, provides a guide to the time profile decompression of all cases of decompression sickness occurring on any bottom at great depths. Its time curve following from pressure of a diver to the depth of his original dive 275 feet (83.3 m.) may be compared with that of Table 5D (Figure 4) but it needs to be emphasized that curve is for oxygenators during and that a larger time constant may be needed for such a curve using only air.

Thus with recompression the acute forms of decompression sickness can be cured but later bone damage may not necessarily have been prevented. The biggest problem which remains is undoubtedly acute necrosis of bone. Early detection by radiological survey is important but the outstanding research project on the field of decompression sickness is to find some means of preventing this chronic disease, during or soon after the original and presumably adequate decompression. For this it may be necessary to search intensively for the presence of the silent bubbles in bone but techniques have not yet been perfected and for the moment we can do no more than remain adequate treatment on the water stage.



FIGURE 1. (Continued) A curve showing the percentage of intracranial pressure which drops at the first ventricular tap in the left ventricle. The patient underwent the operation for meningitis, etc., and the percentage of the pressure is the percentage of the ICP which subsided in the first tap. The curve is a guide for the determination of the percentage of the pressure of the ICP which subsided in the first tap (John H. Hargis).

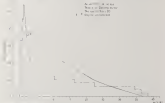


FIGURE 2. (Continued) A curve showing the percentage of intracranial pressure which drops at the first ventricular tap in the left ventricle. The patient underwent the operation for meningitis, etc., and the percentage of the pressure is the percentage of the ICP which subsided in the first tap (John H. Hargis).

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THE HEALTH OF THE NAVY IN THE POST-WAR YEARS

By Frank Follett Ellis

A report on the health of the Navy for the years 1850-1901 which incorporates its health for 1901-1956 has been completed recently. The last Report to be published by HM Sanitary Officer was for the year 1936. Surgeon Vice-Admiral Sir Derek Todd, P.C., when he was the Medical Director-General (Navy) considered it would be timely therefore to summarize the evidence thus made available concerning the causes of sickness and injuries, swellings and deaths in the post-war years.

From the Second World War Naval Health Reports were prepared from the neurological index of the medical journals prepared by the senior medical officers of ships, hospitals or shore establishments. The first Report for the years 1939-1956 was published in 1960 following several general statements in the *Lancet* which suggest that the trend has more or less returned to the first half of the 19th century than it appears to be today. Thus in the report for 26th July 1958 we read:

... no public document of any statistical value was emanated from the Medical Department of the Navy. When then the 1958 Navy Report cost £50,000 a year of the public money, some demand the Government. It is, they think, the health of the Navy is the highest statistical peak. "We cannot say, the data have not established the fact by accurate observations, particularly accepted. Also, they contributed to the growth of the system which was valuable." The answer you agree that they have given that the evidence before Parliament of before the public. It is only suggested however that we have lately heard that a complete report of the observations in the Naval Department is impossible for publication, which will be, the world no longer in the dark, depending on, not only that the medical department of the Navy has reached its end and ready.

Dr John Wilson, who wrote the 1950-1956 Report at the behest of Sir William Burnell, F.R.S., the Physician-General of the Navy, was also critical of earlier statements concerning that before 1812 the returns from ships were so defective and hence so to be of little value for statistical purposes. Statistical Reports were published subsequently without interruption until 1956 except for the years 1864-1865 and 1880-1881. Publications were then suspended. The need thus created has been filled partially by the publication elsewhere of a summary of the principal causes of sickness and injuries and of swellings and deaths for the years of the Second World War (1939-1945, and 1946-1956) derived from tables constructed according to the format of the post-war Reports. The complete tables will be included eventually in the Naval Chapter of the Statistical Volume of the Official History of the Second World War together with a detailed analysis of the causes of swellings and deaths due to disease for the years 1904-1943 (October, 1944). There were no Reports during the period 1961-1967.

ROYAL NAVY AND ROYAL MARINES 1901-1960

The techniques employed to examine the statistics of any community may be sophisticated but the end results will only be as accurate as the raw material which is analyzed. Since 1881 when a statistical system of medical documentation was

accepted by the Civil Service. The material has been derived in the Royal Navy from the Individual Case Records like Service Form — F 104 (4) which are completed when any part or women of the Armed Forces is on the Sick List for more than 48 hours.* The nomenclature of the World Health Organization's International Statistical Classification of Diseases, Injuries and Causes of Death, 1959 (Census, 1957) is used by each of the Services in constructing the tables. In the current Naval Reports, the Intermediate List A, of 150 causes of morbidity and mortality and List C — a special list of only 30 causes — are generally used for the analysis of the case returns and reference is made only occasionally to the more detailed 'Injury List and the 4-digit' sub-categories of disease which are however available on punched cards for research or administrative purposes from the year 1958 onwards. A Joint Services Code was used in the analysis of injuries before 1961 when the Joint Armed Forces Statistical Classification of Causes of Injury, a supplement to the International Classification, was adopted.

The Reports for 1973/1980 show for the first time the counts of sickness for officers and ratings separately and include the figures for the Women's Royal Naval Service and before 1960 the Queen Alexandra's Royal Naval Nursing Service.

TABLE I
Royal Navy and Royal Marines (Total force, monthly, morbidity and deaths)

Year	Actual strength	Peak strength (No.)	No. of sick cases per 1,000	Days sickness per 1,000	No sick days per 1,000	Morbidity per 1,000	Deaths per 1,000
1951	128,960	151,261	158	6.2	97.6	61.1	0.2
1954	128,280	152,007	180	6.6	103.6	112.3	1.2
1955	152,140	171,847	187	7.0	104.2	114	0.2
1958	167,555	177,756	122	5.6	68.8	60.8	0.5
1959	166,000	177,793	148	5.1	64.8	110.5	0.6
1960	166,800	174,701	110	4.0	57.0	71.2	0.5
1961	167,165	164,000	100	3.6	57.6	71.8	0.1
1962	151,800	160,775	77.5	4.1	31.7	32.6	0.0
1963	161,950	161,706	100	4.4	43.8	11.1	0.2
1965	161,200	161,736	126	6.2	60.6	60.8	0.5
1966	161,000	161,206	127	4.2	55.7	60.6	0.1

General trends

Table I indicates that on a whole the Royal Navy and Royal Marines became more healthy during this period. There was a downward trend in the numbers of men, the days sickness per head and the numbers sick, daily. The sick rate fluctuated between 1 and 2 per 1,000. The first noticeable rise after a notable improvement between 1961 and 1966, in which too much significance should not be attached to it was in part due to a tightening up of medical regulations to include the acceptance of recruits who were before considered remained in a constant level.

*There are exceptions. Medical regulations require that cases of venereal disease or non-specific infection which are contact or the attending hospital, etc., to be shown as 3 days of sickness. All morbidities and deaths are included, although they may not previously have been on the sick list.

Disposition with respect to the data. The data given in Table 2 suggest that the First East Station was the least healthy of the larger stations (but see comments on Table 5); the Middle East was the most healthy; and the House Store Establishments and the Home Plot lay between these two in this regard.

TABLE 2
Total cases in different stations, 1940-1941

Total	House Store Establish.	Home Plot	Middle East	Second East Station	South Establish.	First East	For Total	Total Force
1940	407	795	701	538	1477	719	3637	133
1941	761	247	262	536	476	597	2879	111
1940	380	793	281	225	398	423	2097	142
1941	175	361	767	376	718	585	2672	113
1940	424	407	247	1799	1786	556	4199	430
1941	861	861	778	1764	1388	176	5638	188
1940	718	477	1784	1564	681	1419	6705	170
1941	267	360	273	1274	1283	562	3019	159
1940	171	777	779	1071	1543	184	4625	169
1941	143	375	478	1541	1607	171	4335	156
1940	511	378	312	128	247	588	2064	123

*From 1 to September, 1940, the First East Station included Carlton. After this date Carlton was included in the First East Command and the remainder of the Command was known as the Station Set until October (and January) until July, 1941, when it was renamed the Middle East Station.

*Where the population exposed is less than 1,000 cases are given as fractions.

Officers—among themselves. In this paper ratings will generally include both naval ratings and Royal Marines other ranks unless it is stated otherwise. For each of three years the crude case rates for all diseases and injuries by ratings were greatly in excess of the crude rates for officers. Adjusting the rates for differences in age distribution (the officers were older on the average) reduced these differences, but it did not eliminate them.

The main diseases which contributed to the relatively high rate for ratings were gonorrhea (IC4) in the International Code, viral pharyngitis and tonsillitis (IC19), infectious (IC30), diseases of the stomach and duodenum (IC51), diarrhoea and enteritis (IC58), other specific and ill-defined diarrhea (IC59) and accidents, poisoning and violence (IC90). They were most frequent in men under 30 years of age.

Age. The highest total incidence of infection occurred in the under 30 years group, the next highest in the 30-34 years group and the next in the 35-39 years group. The incidence in the older groups was smaller.

Occupation. The incidence of birth cases due to all causes was highest in the Seamen, Communications and Supply Rating Groups. There was not a great deal of difference between the Royal Marines and the Tank, Bomb and Supply Groups. The Electrical and Radioelectrical and the Air Maintenance, Fire-fighting and Artillery groups were the most healthy ratings, while by far the least healthy the officers were the healthiest group of all.

Causes of Deaths

Throughout the period the main groups of diseases causing deaths, with the exception of the venereal diseases — a major cause for deaths but rare among soldiers — and two venereal categories (all other diseases classified as infectious and venereal) (A40)* and all defined and unknown causes of instability and mortality (A115) were acute upper respiratory tract infection, influenza and gastric ulcers and colitis (Table 2).

TABLE 2
Main causes of 10 deaths: Rates per 1,000

Year	Acute upper respiratory infections (A115)		Influenza (A40)		Gastric ulcers and colitis (A115)	
	Officers	Rankings	Officers	Rankings	Officers	Rankings
1950	10.4	41.0	18.5	58.0	0.8	15.1
1951	20.4	42.3	8.7	26.1	0.8	15.1
1952	20.9	54.0	0.0	22.4	0.0	14.0
1953	20.1	47.0	8.1	11.7	0.0	17.7
1954*	22.4	44.4	10.4	18.0	0.0	11.0
1955	20.7	43.4	0.4	28.0	0.0	16.1
1956	20.0	71.0	1.4	11.0	0.0	17.0
1957	21.5	47.0	0.0	11.0	0.0	14.0
1958	21.4	47.1	14.0	23.0	0.0	17.1
1959	20.0	70.1	0.4	19.0	0.0	16.0
1960	20.4	49.3	11.0	22.3	0.0	16.1

The most notable improvement was a five-fold reduction in the raw rate for pulmonary tuberculosis (Table 4). The Registrar General's Statistical Report for 1962 shows the notification rate for male cases of pulmonary tuberculosis in England and Wales to have fallen from 1.1 per 1,000 in 1919 to 0.1 in 1962 — a ten fold improvement. In 1960 the incidence in England and Wales for men in earlier age groups to men in the Navy (15-64 years) was also 0.2 per 1,000.

TABLE 4
Pulmonary tuberculosis: Cases. Death rates per 1,000

Year	Officers	Rankings (average)	Rankings	Rankings (average)
1950	0.1	152,700	0.4	111,000
1951	0.0	154,700	0.0	111,000
1952	0.1	154,700	0.0	109,000
1953	0.1	153,000	0.0	103,000
1954	0.0	155,000	0.0	101,000
1955	0.0	151,000	0.0	100,000
1956	0.0	151,000	0.0	101,000
1957	0.0	150,000	0.0	100,000
1958	0.1	150,000	0.0	100,000
1959	0.1	150,000	0.0	100,000
1960	0.1	150,000	0.0	100,000
1961	0.1	150,000	0.0	100,000
1962	0.1	150,000	0.0	100,000
1963	0.1	150,000	0.0	100,000

*All includes 75 infectious and such venereal diseases as syphilis (Table 1a). See also daily deaths (197) average 1959 dermatomyositis (1.1) colitis (1.0) and peptic ulcers (1.0).

The figures for rising tumours were also more impressive. In 1973 there were 48 cases of 3/3/0000 in men who had been in the Navy less than 12 months. In 1982 there was only one case in this group of ratings.

TABLE 1
Arteriosclerosis and degenerative heart disease: Total Force
(data for 1980)

Year	Officers		Ratings		
	Cases	Rate	Age-standardized rate	Crude rate	Cases
1973	7	0.0	0.0	0.1	18
1974	10	0.7	1.4	0.2	25
1975	7	0.5	1.0	0.2	20
1976	11	0.8	1.0	0.2	24
1977	8	0.4	0.8	0.1	17
1978	9	0.7	0.9	0.2	23
1979	5	0.8	1.2	0.2	19
1980	7	0.6	0.7	0.2	22
1981	7	0.7	0.7	0.2	21
1982	10	0.6	1.2	0.2	23
1983	9	0.5	1.1	0.2	20

The importance of adjusting the rates for differences in age distribution when comparing officers with ratings was demonstrated by the case rates for arterio-sclerosis and degenerative heart disease — largely coronary disease — and hyper-tension disease (Table 2). Each year the crude rates for ratings in both these groups were less than the crude rates for officers. Age standardization not only reduced the difference but for arteriosclerosis and degenerative heart disease the age-standardized rate for ratings was greater than the crude rate for officers every year in 1967, 1968, 1969, 1970 and 1971 that was also true for hypertension disease. The impression given by the crude rates that these diseases were more prominent in the officer population was quite misleading, if anything the reverse was the case.

The upward trend in the case rate for carcinoma of the respiratory system (ASD) which has been reported in the civilian community was not reflected in these naval figures. The case numbers for officers varied from 1 to 3 each year and for ratings from 1 to 6 each year. However, as the Republic General's Statistics Reports reveal that the upward trend in the incidence of lung cancer only becomes apparent above the fifth decade, these figures do not depart from the view that the heavy smoking habits of some men probably exert their toll in terms of respiratory and cardiac disease after they have retired from the Service.

TABLE 4
Frequency pattern of morbidity: *Biological Causes*
Averaged rates per 1,000

	1953-54	1955-56	1954-55	1961-62
Psychomotor and nervous (C39)	1.1	5.4	5.8	4.4
Digestive (A600)	1.7	0.5	2.8	2.0
Circulatory and circulatory (A70)	4.9	0.4	6.5	1.3
Respiratory (A800) and respiratory (A850)	4.1	0.4	4.8	2.0
Both chronic conditions and other skin conditions (C700)	15.8	10.5	7.6	9.6
Other diseases of skin (C80)	0.4	7.5	2.7	1.4

The averaged annual case rates for certain prominent causes of sickness of ratings are summarized in Table 4. Psychomotor and the nervous were not only an important cause of morbidity but also of absences for officers and for ratings. The case rate was rising towards the end of this period and so was the absencing rate. Disorders of the digestive system, particularly disturbed sleep and gastric and duodenal ulcer continued to account for much sickness. There was no improvement in the incidence of chronic bronchitis. The combined rates for bacterial and other skin diseases (C700 and C80) were reduced from over 12 per 1,000 at the beginning of the period to just over 10 per 1,000 at the end but skin diseases still accounted for a great deal of sickness and these groups do not include such conditions as ulcers, free dermatophytosis, scabies, pediculosis, and scabies or skin eruptions not otherwise specified. In assessing the impact of these diseases on the efficiency of the Navy it is important to remember that the numbers of cases who were on the Sick List for less than 48 hours, and all Anticipated List cases are excluded from these figures.

TABLE 5
Antenna and clefting: *Biological Causes*
Averaged rates per 1,000

	1953-54	1955-56	1954-55	1961-62
Biological (A70)	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.4
Antenna (C1-1, C81)	—**	0.2	1.2	1.1

**Data reported as dermatitis genitalis.

The averaged annual rates for injuries are shown in Table 2 for two diseases, epilepsy and ulcers, which were frequent in hospital patients then in general practice. They both frequently pose difficult problems in diagnosis and very often much unnecessary stress for the patients once they are allowed to join the Service. The former situation on the need for careful consultation at pre-entry medical examinations and examinations after entry of individuals with a history of fits or attacks of loss of consciousness as of occurring respiratory or allergic illness. The rates for ulcers were nearly always much lower.

TABLE 1
Certain infectious diseases of entry, Total Force, China
(Rate per 1 000)

Year	Acute poliomyelitis	Glandular fever	Infectious hepatitis
1941	24 (26.2)	111.2 (12.4)	277 (31.4)
1944	36 (42.3)	264.9 (30.1)	236 (27.6)
1951	32 (40.2)	277.3 (34.1)	85 (10.6)
1954	5 (6.1)	186.0 (22.1)	786 (95.4)
1957	41 (50.6)	24.6 (2.9)	488 (59.8)
1959	9 (11.2)	173.9 (21.1)	128 (15.7)
1960	5 (6.1)	140.9 (17.4)	393 (47.9)
1961	2 (2.5)	169.0 (20.7)	515 (61.7)
1964		111.2 (13.7)	326 (39.7)
1967		156.6 (19.5)	380 (46.3)
1968		124.2 (15.5)	87 (10.6)

The infectious diseases reported most frequently in the Total Force were rubella, glandular fever, infectious hepatitis and syphilis of unknown origin. Rubella was more frequent in the Home Station and pyrexia of unknown origin occurred more frequently in the Mediterranean, Middle East and the Far East. The figures for acute poliomyelitis, glandular fever and infectious hepatitis are shown in Table 1.

There were 69 cases of acute poliomyelitis during the period—30 in the Home Fleet and Home Establishments and 39 cases on foreign stations. Pre-poliophax vaccine was first introduced for personnel under the age of 25 and all hospital staff in contact with cases in 1955 and in 1960 it was made available to all naval personnel and all Admiralty civilians and families living aboard. There were no cases in 1961, 1962 or 1963.

Infectious hepatitis was, probably the most important infective disease in the Second World War after respiratory tract and venereal infections and malaria. The case rate declined from 3.4 in 1943 to 2.9 per 1 000 in 1945. The incidence was very high at times, reaching 9.4 on the Far East Station in 1946 and 1.3 per 1 000 in the Mediterranean in 1961. The improvement towards the end of this period was more marked on the foreign stations where these high rates were first reported but it was apparent on the Station for the Home Station.

The annual incidence of glandular fever was surprisingly constant but the difference between stations was very variable and there were no pronounced or consistent differences between stations.

Classical epidemics of glandular fever other than rubella, such as mononuclear chicken-pox and measles occurred from time to time, mostly amongst new entrants in the Home Fleet Hospitalization but the annual rate for any one of these infections was almost invariably less than 1 per 1,000.

TABLE 3
Diseases due to viral infections. Ratings
Rats per 1,000

	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963
Rubella	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	1.0
Glandular fever	10.1	14.0	10.1	7.1	22.1	14.0	14.0	12.0	20.1	10.1	10.1
Chlamydia	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.1	0.0	0.5	0.5	0.0	1.5	1.5	1.0
Lymphocytoblastus monocyti	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0
Coxsack and echinorhynchus (myxomatous diseases)	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	2.1	10.0	7.1	7.0	10.1
Total viral diseases	7.1	10.1	10.0	10.1	20.1	10.0	12.1	20.1	20.1	20.1	20.1
Varicella non-vaccinated	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.1	20.0	20.1	20.1	7.0	22.1	10.0	11.0
** (TOTAL)	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.1	20.1	20.1	20.1	14.0	22.1	20.1	21.1

*0.0 = not recorded ** = total viral diseases varicella non-vaccinated

The annual rates for viral diseases and varicella non-vaccinated for ratings are shown in Table 3. The data incidence was lowest on the Home Fleet Station and highest on the Far East Station usually. The latter figures were originally estimated by those for the South Atlantic and Americas and West Indian Stations where the total numbers of rats were very small. The incidence of viral diseases in the Home Fleet and Home Fleet Hospitalization from 1953-1963 was very variable, falling within 10 cases per 1,000 or less but during the succeeding years there was an increase in the Home Fleet varicella which reached a peak of 21 cases per 1,000 in 1962. This explains at least in part the increase in the case rates for all ratings of varicella from 1957 onwards which is to be observed in Table 3. The most variable situation lay in the Far East where the annual incidence of varicella diseases along between 1957 and 1963 varied from 12.0 to 15.2 cases per 1,000 per year. The combined rates for all viral diseases, and for varicella non-vaccinated show some improvement on the previous figures for

The Worth of the Run at the Fair-Baird Station

removal, however, alone has not been sufficiently high. These reductions contributed appreciably to the high queue rates due to rail causes shown in Table 3 for the Fair-Baird Station.

TABLE 10
Principal causes of injuries, offsets and savings, Case number

(Total saving offset per 1 mile)	1957 (1,000 1954)	1958 (1,144 1954)	1959 (1,144 1954)	1960 (1,001 1954)	1961 (1,001 1954)	1962 (1,001 1954)	1963 (1,001 1954)
Accidents involving bicyclists	24	19	26	43	30	14	16
Lost transport	74	49	55	54	59	54	45
Compensation of property lost or damaged in and other transport accidents	78	101	100	104	110	116	116
Personal injuries, etc.	1,070	1,111	1,140	1,097	1,076	1,094	937
Knock-into and other accidental cases	1,002	1,154	1,075	1,040	1,070	1,050	1,031
Lost effects of injury	329	115	100	400	495	545	591

*Following the adoption of the Joint Armed Forces Railroad Classification of Causes of Injuries the numbers of injuries in 1957 and 1958 shown to be caused by transport or transportation injury, the use of motor cycles in injury and transport, property loss and transportation accidents and knock-into and other accidents, were less than in previous years. The numbers of injuries due to motor vehicles, other accidental cases and the loss effects of injury increased.

The principal causes of injury for offsets and savings are shown in Table 10 for the years 1957-1963. After the regulatory measures against animal and illegal case accidents that any other group of accidents. The most frequent were injuries, and other accidental cases. Most were those due to recreational activities and the third accidents with motor vehicles.

The mobility due to recreational, pedestrian and transportation hazards largely the former was not negligible and, as these risk factors greatly moderate the actual amount of injuries caused by recreational and other transportation accidents, these figures underline the need for weighing the benefits to be gained from any source mass transportation programs against the incidence of these undesired effects which can sometimes be more serious than the diseases against which protection is sought.

Injuries due to motor cases only reached double figures in 1957 (21), 1958 (21) and 1961 (21). Flying injuries, including possible accidents, were not very numerous: 1957 (21), 1958 (21), 1959 (21), 1960 (21), 1961 (21), 1962 (21) and 1963 (21) had the percentages, which were total were higher than the total other types of accidents. There was no improvement in the total accident rate throughout the period 1957-1963.

TABLE 10

The most common causes of disabilities: Royal Navy and Royal Marine
Surveys and Other Studies, 1942-1962
(Rates per 1,000)

Year	Psychoneurotic and anxious		Disorders of vision and other organs of locomotion		Other unspecified and/or ill-defined disorders		Acute psychiatric and infectious		Total (the 50 groups of disorders that appear in the C List)	
	R/N		R/M		R/N		R/M		R/N	
1942	1.4	3.2	0.5	2.0	1.4	5.0	1.0	3.4	12.5	30.0
1948	1.5	4.5	0.5	1.2	1.4	1.1	1.4	3.0	5.7	14.0
1954	3.0	3.0	0.0	2.0	1.1	0.0	1.0	0.0	5.0	25.0
1958	2.2	1.0	0.0	1.5	1.2	0.0	1.2	2.1	11.2	24.5
1962	3.2	1.0	0.0	1.0	1.1	0.0	1.0	4.2	11.5	21.4
1963	2.2	1.4	1.5	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	4.1	10.7	20.0
1965	4.0	4.4	0.2	1.2	0.0	0.0	1.2	4.4	10.4	23.2

Causes of disabilities

The final disability rates for officers and ratings combined are shown in Table 1. The high figures for the Total Force were largely due to disabilities for ratings. The most common causes of disability for ratings and other ranks of the Royal Navy and Royal Marines are shown in Table 11.

Psychoneurotic and anxious etc. were responsible for more than half the disabilities for both groups in 1962 and the increase in the rates for these two groups explains the rise in the Royal Marine disability rate between 1962 and 1965. The trends for officers were similar although the rates were not so high (Table 12).

TABLE 11

Total final disabilities: Royal Navy and Royal Marine Officers, 1942-1962

Year	R/N Officers		R/M Officers		Total Officers	
	No.	Rate per 1,000	No.	Rate per 1,000	No.	Rate per 1,000
1942	60	1.1	0	1.1	60	5.4
1948	77	2.1	0	1.0	77	2.1
1954	76	1.0	0	1.1	76	2.1
1958	53	1.2	0	1.1	53	2.3
1962	67	4.4	5	4.4	72	5.8
1965	18	3.1	4	6.1	22	5.2
1967	22	2.4	0	4.5	22	2.8

Causes of death

The annual death rates for officers and ratings combined ranged between 0.9 and 1.4 per 1,000. The rates for officers were higher than the age-standardized death rates for ratings partly because of serious accidents involving officers.

The Death of the Officers of the Fleet Air Arm

During the 11 year period there were 1,846 deaths of officers and ratings. 998 deaths were due to injuries and 848 were due to diseases. The most frequent causes of deaths from disease were as follows:

Arteriosclerosis and degenerative heart disease (341)	136 deaths
Malignant neoplasms (245-47)	81 deaths
Vascular lesions of the central nervous system (478)	29 deaths
Leukaemia and lymphomas (423)	22 deaths

Arteriosclerosis and degenerative heart disease caused more deaths than any other group of diseases. This group accounted for 34 deaths in 1940 of which 15 were deaths of ratings. Fifteen of these were due to coronary disease and four of the ratings were 37 years of age or younger, the youngest being only 23. The cause of death was confirmed at autopsy for each of these four cases. No explanation can be found for the increase in the number of fatal cases in this particular year.

If leukaemia and lymphomas cases are included under the malignant neoplasms, the group of diseases was the most frequent cause of deaths due to disease.

Between 1944 and 1946 approximately one-third of all deaths due to disease each year were due to pulmonary tuberculosis (Roberts, 1946). During this 11-year period there were only two deaths from this cause, one in 1953 and one in 1960. There were no deaths amongst officers.

WOMEN'S ROYAL NAVAL SERVICES 1950-1961

Gynaecological diseases apart from the trends in the death statistics Women's Royal Naval Services were usually similar to those for the men. The most common diseases were the acute respiratory tract infections and influenza. The incidence of these infections was greater than for the men. On the other hand, the incidence of appendicitis was usually lower than for the men but declined notably in 1960 and 1961. This improvement was more than offset by an increase in gastroenteritis and colitis. The annual case rate for pulmonary tuberculosis always remained below 1 per 1,000 and there were no cases in 1955 and 1960. Psychoses and psychoneuroses accounted for 44% of all fatal conditions during the period.

DISCUSSION

The validity of these figures is dependent on the accurate completion of the Inpatient Record Form as prescribed by the regulations and confirmation of the final diagnosis by the medical officer in charge of the case. This is a feature of all statistical reports of this nature and the Royal Navy is probably no worse as well as more exact Government agencies in this respect and very possibly better than most. The use of the Inpatient Record for statistical purposes demands a considerable loss in the presentation of the Reports, since in 1954 nearly the whole of the tables in the medical officers' reports on which the case numbers were based and a reference to likelihood of duplicated or triplicated reports of cases. On the other hand attempts to list more than 100 cases of diseases are excluded from

many of the Inpatient Record Forms and then from the Annual Statistical Reports said to set all cases on the Attending Logs.

The death rate for the Total Force has not varied greatly during the last fifty years except in times of war. It no longer provides a yardstick with which to measure the health of the Navy as it did in the past. Increasing rates, because such factors affect fleet health alone such as medical standards for recruiting or retention in the Service or the manpower requirements of the Fleet. We are left only the well known rates: the days sickness per head and the well daily rate to assess the impact of ill health on the Navy. These suggest that there was an overall improvement during the period under review, although the high case rates for respiratory tract infections, influenza, gastroenteritis and colitis, venereal and venereal diseases, the high smoking rates, caused by neuro-psychiatric disorders, and the fact that two thirds of all the deaths in peace time were caused by injuries not by disease locates attention on the areas where preventive measures might be stimulated.

Thus these Reports, in their present form, do not include much of the major sickness and injury which may contribute to the loss of working hours, inefficiency and lowered morale. Furthermore reports based on Inpatient Record Forms will usually be two years out of date at the time by the time they are printed and may be so for naval reports are now made twice a

The last Royal Naval Medical Statistics Committee (1946) which included among their members two Medical Directors General of the Navy, Sir Sheldon Dudley and Dr Henry de Closs Cohen, and the various and joint vice Chairmen in Medical Statistics in the Navy, Professor Major Greenwood and Dr J. A. Farrow Roberts, advised the use of a census system for short term as opposed to long term statistics. With such a short term system the numbers of cases in any one broad disease category would be counted in a fixed time such week, for example at midnight on Wednesday, and reported by no later in the *Admiralty*. This technique was used successfully after the Second World War to examine the effects of treatment in station and upon deck on temperatures on the incidence of diseases and injuries on the *Black Lion* and *Attending Logs* of all ships carrying a medical officer (Roberts 1946; Ellis Smith and Underwood 1953; Smith 1956). Whereas the data on the *Black Lion* were relatively unimpressive as an evidence of the effects of climate extremes, cases on the *Attending Log* provided valuable information concerning the levels of sickness above or below which ill health decreased in the Fleet.

With the computer savings available today the time computer only became operational in 1960 the possibility of instituting short term sickness returns might be considered. Weekly returns analyzed by computer could provide an almost instantaneous check on the health of the Fleet and more frequent returns could be required by signal if this ever became necessary. Whatever concluding more than the present machinery—the Statistical Health Reports will continue to derive primarily of historical rather than of immediate operational importance.

THE HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE MEDICAL SERVICES OF HM DOCKYARD, CHATHAM, 1825-1964*

By David S. Wright

PREFACE

I was appointed Assistant Medical Officer, H.M. Dockyard, Chatham in July 1963. On my arrival there I found a large manuscript volume which contained copies of letters to and from the Surgey of the Dockyard from 1825-1871 and it was this volume which aroused my interest in the history of the Medical Services of the Yard. My enquiries soon revealed that an Industrial Medical Service of sorts had been carried on in this ancient Yard from the time of Charles II until before Ramage's had begun to study and write about the diseases of seafaring.

Thus it is by no means a complete history of the services. My first visit to the National Maritime Museum revealed that there were over one thousand manuscript volumes concerning the Yard and another similar number were in the Public Records Office. Thus I had not time to examine all these but chose the State Papers which refer to the Yard from 1660 to 1702. The only history of the Yard is the Notes by Admiral Cress Wrenn, 1916, a former Adjutant General and in Chatham and even these were never published. There is no medical history written and in the Admiralty all medical records before 1916 have since been preserved in the Public Records Office have been destroyed by the task of discovering, let alone collating, all the possible material would take some years and it is for this reason that this history is so often incomplete and that I have appended an bibliography.

While my enquiries have been of great interest to me, it is on the whole that looking into the past is of benefit and interest to those planning the future that this dissertation is written.

CHAPTER I

1617-1628

Early Years of Chatham Dockyard

When, as a result of the Reformation of the churches, Spain replaced France as the traditional enemy of England, the main threat to our shores came no longer from Normandy but from the Spanish Netherlands. Parliament had been the principal naval base but now the Thames and London were directly threatened and strategy dictated that a base be found to guard the river. Somewhere with a good river and full of tide was required and a muddy bottom on which the ships could rest while being repaired. Thus it was that in 1617 William, 1640-2, made home on the banks of the Medway was retired for 1½ days a month and Chatham Dockyard was born.

*This dissertation is not included in the *Historical Dictionary of the R.F.A.* (London 1961).

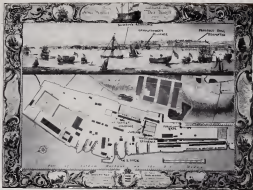
The exact position of this street is not known but it was in the vicinity of Saint Mary's Church. For the first twenty years, during which other yards were added, the yard was known as Millingham Dock though it was much smaller than the fishing village which is now the town of Gillingham. It became Chatham Yard in 1597 and has remained so ever since though with the expansion of the Yard to the North and East and the confusion of the Medway means the Yard now lies much more within the boundaries of Gillingham than those of Chatham.

On Queen Mary's death in 1558 the rivalry between England and Spain flared up once more, and during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I Chatham Yard took on a greater importance in the defence of the country. In 1570 a Main Dock was dug out for the mooring of timber for masts and spars and a local merchant, Hill House, close by Saint Mary's Church, was purchased for the use of dockyard officers. A large and substantial storehouse was added in the following year and ten years later the first graving dock, one day and shortly afterwards, again, was added to it and it became the first dry dock.

Already in this early period on many ships were lying in the Medway that the workmen feared an epidemic might be imported from the Netherlands to destroy them. The river started up the Medway was therefore closed with sluices and a chain and Upper Castle was built to secure the safety of the fleet.

At Chatham in 1590 the earliest form of marine health insurance (Rowell, 1917) was initiated by Sir Francis Drake and Sir John Hawkins. Hawkins has been depicted by historians as more a pirate than a seaman-warrior, but he was an expert leader who appreciated that it was more necessary for sailing and fighting for Queen's ships, and also that those engaged in her service and no longer able to go to sea were likely to find themselves destitute and in need of care. Thus it was that he founded the Sir John Hawkins Hospital — a hospital for twelve paralysed seamen — and the Chatham Chest at about the same time.

The original foundation (Alison, 1941) of the Chatham Chest came about by an Act of Parliament which required every parish in the country to provide a weekly sum for the maintenance of the disabled seamen who had been born and were resident within its boundaries. The difficulties of administration of such an Act must have been considerable and a system of compulsory payments by deduction at source from seamen's wages was initiated. This must have been much simpler and was introduced at the suggestion of Sir Robert Mansell, Treasurer of the Navy, in 1604. The Fund was to be administered as a Trust under the guardianship of the Commissioners for the Sick and Wounded, the surplus to be locked in a great chest kept in Saint Mary's Church and opened only by five keys held by five different persons. The Chest was supported by a monthly levy of sixpence from sailors and shipwrights earning more than ten shillings a month, and a further response from laymen. It was administered originally by five Principal Officers of the Yard, and pensions or gratuities were paid from it to those possessing certain tickets. Now called Hart Chests, these still exist in the Royal Navy today in some more unobtrusive, but still the ultimate proof of injury received while on duty and in the event of all other circumstances being found



of use in deciding whether payment of a gratuity in a pension should be made. The amount paid from the Chest depended on the assessment of the surgeon of a survey upon the individual whose injury had led to his expenditure to the loss of an arm or a leg for payment to be made. Some of the old chest tablets are still preserved in the Public Records Office and the assessment of the varied injuries on these tablets seems to be an attempt at defining a term in modern terms as *Repetitive Strain*.

A last concept the Chatham Chest was used in, wasle and in fact history would tell a volume of its use. It was necessary for an entitled man to present himself personally at Chatham to collect his pension and then for a man stammer or blind was a difficult undertaking if he did not live in that district. Large sums of money accumulated and by the time all of it found its way into the pockets of those whom the founders of the Chest had wished to help. There were many warships in the 215 years history of the Chest, which now lies empty in the National Maritime Museum, Greenwich but the ideas of health insurance to which it gave rise were an example to the world and Williams (1911) counted the origins of the United States Public Health Service directly to the Chatham Chest. There were over 400 millions (sterling) in the funds when they were finally transferred to Greenwich and amalgamated with those of its hospital there in 1897. In spite of the vicissitudes through which it passed the funds of the Chest were undoubtedly of very great value to the sick.

In 1619 Chatham Dockyard underwent major changes. A new set of buildings was erected to the north of the Old Dock, as it became known, and there formed three sides of a quadrangle the rows forming the west side. The north and east ranges were officers' houses, while to the north lay the air path, area and sea walls and behind the latter the dock-stones. Within the quadrangle was the first dry dock and later in the century further docks and a dryway were added.

Certain numbers of men were now employed in the yard. Sailors, from the ships in Ordinary (i.e. those in commission lying in the Midway undergoing repair or waiting to be sent on the ships as well as those ship carpenters, joiners and others lived locally and permanent men have been common. As a result in December 1815 (March 1857) a local barber surgeon was appointed by warrant from the Lord Admiral on the advice of the principal officers of the Navy. He was not a sea surgeon but a civilian practitioner; he received no salary and was paid a retainer fee of twenty shillings (£12 10s. 0d) per annum supplemented by sixpence per month from shipwrights paid in a similar way to the payments to the Chatham Chest.

It seems probable that the appointment of John Pearson to look after the men employed in shipbuilding and repairing was the earliest appointment of what we now know as an Industrial Medical Officer in the world. Surgeons had long since served armies on land and sea, but as far as I have been able to ascertain none had been appointed before to serve men in industry. An increasing respect for the medical profession and a demonstration in the west women and doctors at work, who had served the Elizabethan poor marked the early part of the seventeenth

century and with the rise of the middle class, the gross, physicians or surgeons became less important and general practice began to grow.

There is no doubt that at a time when the sciences of medicine and surgery were beginning to evolve from many years of comparative stagnation, the medical services of HM Dockyard Chatham were born.

CHAPTER II

1625-1688

Foundations of the Medical Service

When John Ferson was appointed to Chatham Yard, the Society of Apothecaries had for only eight years, held the Naval Charter. The struggle between the Society, the Barber-Surgeons' Company and the College of Physicians was often bitter to each sought authority and money. This did nothing to improve the standards of surgeons or physicians and it seems unlikely that the Dockyard surgeons were either well qualified or expert. These recommendations were not necessarily from medical men, for in 1625 the officers of the King's ships at Chatham, equipped with preparations for the expedition to Cadix, petitioned the Commissioners of the Navy that John Norton might be recommended to the Lord Admiral, the Duke of Buckingham, for a warrant appointing him to the Yard to join John Ferson who was, then the Surgeon in Ordinary. This recommendation was not accepted as Ferson was appointed Surgeon of the Extraordinary, or surgeon to the Dockyard vessels, in addition to his appointment with the ships. The Chief Officer had reported that the removal of work to Chatham from Deptford and Woolwich had resulted in more work than Ferson, aged and of poor experience could cope with and that Norton was an able surgeon and good physician. However Ferson continued and Norton died. Richard Wye being appointed to succeed him in 1625 and to succeed him in 1639.

The precise dates of the Surgeon of the Ordinary and the Surgeon of the Extraordinary do not seem in this early period to have been clearly defined and it is doubtful if during the seventeenth century both were always appointed. In the Tudor Yard began in 1644 the house at the end of the south quay, by the river, is noted as the Surgeon's residence and presumably Ferson and Wye lived and probably worked at this building. Wye was still there in 1654, but no details of his life or work have been discovered except a mention in the Account Book of the Chatham Chest for 1671-4.

To Richard Wye, James Chynoweth is, the Extraordinary, at Chatham, the one major military debt by him performed on Richard's wife. Remembrance of the St. George. (2) R.

In 1646 during the second Dutch War John Evelyn the diarist and an active Commissioner of the Sick and Wounded, planned the building of an infirmary at Chatham for the care of wounded seamen and his plans received the Royal Approval. What the Navy Commissioners had intended his plans, he reported in his diary (March 1955) how they

having spent the money of the Infirmary, and seeing the need of them, they wanted it should be an almost speaking, that I saw no more, though a very moderate estimate would have

went down to the Mayor, and I am much more comfortable if the city and country are well and prosper than the death of King and Queen. I am, Sir, very truly &c. Yours &c. John Hunter

Stevenson visited Chatham on 17th March 1866 to discuss a plan, and afterwards tried to impress upon Samuel Pepys Secretary of the Admiralty the necessity of building the hospital but the impetuous Treasury were unable to move the money and no hospital materialised.

Such a building would have been put to an early rest for in 1867 the Dock Pier broke the chain guarding the wharves with freight stacked just the other round corner past Upper Circle damaged by the fact that the water raised that



Fig. 11. Chatham 1861 (1866)

for the same reason destroyed the American British ships. The wreck of one of these ships, the *Albatross*, was destroyed when the present Number Two house was being constructed in 1870 and two of her guns were mounted in front of the Dockyard Surgery. They can be seen in the old photograph of the building (Plate 11) and now stand on the grass in front of the Admirals' Messes.

In 1666 John Cosin of Rochester was appointed Surgeon of the Ordinary. It seems likely that he was Surgeon of the Extraordinary as well for the state of the Navy was allowed by King Charles to run down as shown too near. England and France joined forces against the Dutch in 1672 and peace was not lost in 1674 the

English and Dutch farming an alliance after the marriage of Francis Mary of England and William of Orange in 1679.

John Coony (Knew 1740s and 1760s) was a man of considerable experience. He kept a log while captain of a merchantman, the *Fortune* from 1680-1688, including many stories of piracy and identity against the advice of Captain John Smith who had recommended better peace in 1626 many years before James Lord joined at sea with him. Coony's advice notes were those of the majority of sea captains: was in a second war in 1674 and became Surgeon and Mayor of Rochester in 1676, presumably establishing himself there in a search of his Dutchland appointment. He was later in becoming a member of the Barber Surgeons and was Master of the Company from 1689-90. Of his duties as the Dockyard sailing is recorded and it seems that in 1685 there was another Surgeon of the Extraordinary there as his pay is recorded as being £26 1s. 6d. whereas Coony as Surgeon of the Ordinary received £26 1s. 6d.—both plus their *per person* which as Coony's case maintained by pay in the years that he received £20 in one quarter of that year from that source, his constant receiving £12. This constant constant may have been the Surgeon of the Extraordinary and have lived in the Dockyard.

Coony's signature appears on several forms forwarded by James Francis, Surgeon-General of the Fleet, to Samuel Pepys. These documents are to be found in the Pepysian Library in Magdalene College, Cambridge and as these Coony is designated as appointed to take care of the Sick and Hurt Men sent from his Majesty's Ships to the Town of Rochester.

John Coony, after over fifty years of service in such manner finally retired in 1689. In June that year in the journal of the short-lived, temporary sailing crew of the *Sick and Wounded* in his Majesty's Service, we read that

[Dr John Coony, was Officer for the Sick and Wounded in Rochester having not had his chance to resign that employment, and that his son Dr Anthony Coony may be appointed in his stead, provided that said son can be procured and sent to his headquarters]

The young Dr Coony duly took office but by this time the appointments to the Dockyard and to the Ordinary were definitely quite separate and Dr Robert Coony appears to have had no business in the Dockyard itself. Dr Thomas Drusier (or Drusier) had been appointed to the Dockyard on 16th March 1690, shortly after a pay review had increased the salary of Dockyard Surgeons to £44 per annum in addition to the receipts from the shipwright and laborers. The papers and submissions in the Yard came under the name of the Surgeon in 1708 on payment of their receipts. The total pay of Dr Drusier in 1696 including his receipts and his payment as an officer of the Chatham Chest amounted to £162 4s. 5d.

It is possible to judge the relative standing of the surgeon as that of other officers in the Yard by the pay scale recorded in the Standing Orders to the Yard:

Major, Apothecary, Master Surgeon, Surgeon, Clerk of the Store,
Clerk of the Surgery,
Master Shipwright, Assistant Master Crafted,
Master of the Yard,
Surgeon.

Physician,
Surgeon,
Clerk,
Clerk.

Pain	1 sh 6 d
Wound (deep)	1 sh 6 d
Wound (shallow)	1 sh 6 d
Wound (shallow)	1 sh 6 d

Those of whom the naval officers and gentlemen had neediness, made the Dockyard. This was the Surgeon's courtyard, when England declared war on France and Spain in 1702 for a house to the Commissioners of the Yard from the Navy Office allowed.

It was used by the Surgeons of the Officers of your Yard when they shall be so employed to men down in the line was occupying the Dockyard into having been a house in the Yard and being allowed to occupy for the officers with neediness in any other line.

Then, as now, the surgeons' basic pay was for twenty-four hours a day.

The Surgeons' Clerk, containing his medicines and instruments and a certain source of provisions between Naval surgeons and the Apothecaries and Surgeons in London was to be provided at the Customs Hall of the Company of the Apothecaries. In the same order we read no pay for surgeons until they got their certificates from the Commissioners for the Sick and Wounded and the Governors of the Company of Surgeons. Many of these certificates were put forward in the Public Records Office, but I was unable to find any relating to a dockyard surgeon nor do the journals or proceedings of the Commissioners for the Sick and Wounded contain details of these men. Both the certificates and the journals refer to naval surgeons, and evidence in dockyards seems to have been left to get on with their work without warrants or payment.

The forty-hour week and holidays with pay were given without of in the early 17th century. Work in the Dockyard was not very profitable and was considered (and remained so until very recently) a good reliable job. This was in spite of the fact that on several occasions in the history of the Yard there was insufficient money left after various officers had helped themselves to pay the bills. Robertson (1920) suggests two reasons why men continued to work in the Dockyard in spite of the long hours and starvation pay. For the Viceroy Letters of 1546 and 1551 the Price List Act of 1463 and the Act of Statutes of 1467 made it almost impossible for a man to leave his duties without being arrested. It is doubtful if there would have been any alternative work in the Ministry of War and, secondly the fact that there were perhaps some legal and money disputes to be had in the Yard. One of these, the practice of taking small pieces of wood under seal of the Yard was constantly abused. The men could take as many of these shaves as they were called as they could carry under one arm. It was not only possible that men demanding against their lack of pay beyond their greenings by carrying out a good deal more than they were allowed (belonging the wood on their shoulders, as at which may well have proceeded to the expression carrying a chip on one's shoulder).

One cannot blame the men for the Commissioners Sir Edward Dering in 1463 wrote to the Navy Board: the case of the men is truly deplorable and since I was last under a staff to live from my very heart I wonder how they can through it, ever late by work, more in the forest after a man had been caught on the act of stealing from the Yard as long for the almost severity that Law or Justice can

colours upon their systematically hanging or transportation in spite of the fact that he believed that the men were owed a year's wages.

These then were the conditions under which men worked in the Yard and work was six days a week for fifty-two weeks in the year. The only holidays being on the King's birthday, King's Commemoration Day, Fifth of November and Twenty-ninth of May. On the normal work day, working hours were from 5 am till 5 pm, light permitting, but on these holidays they were an hour earlier, which could be paid a full day's wage.

While the workmen had little time for education or pleasure, life was not much for the surgeons of the Navy and of the Dockyard who continued their struggle with the leaders of the profession in London. When surgeons received a free gift to offset the cost of supplying their medicines and instruments which they had to purchase themselves and have sent out in London. In 1717 they wrote a bitter letter of complaint about the charges made by the Apothecaries for the medicines, a letter which actually had some effect as prices were reduced. The Surgeon's Company was the target in 1779 but the Naval Surgeons addressed a letter to the Privy Council regarding it.

His Majesty's Council, We the Surgeons of His Majesty's Navy, sheweth to your Honours, that amongst with the surgeons, we labour under some Grievances, that the which are not only, rather than His Majesty's Service, but, a further the Morale of being our own before, your Honours for well paid, than the which, is a reason, to your Honours that think, necessary for the good of His Majesty's Navy is.

It appeared that the requirements of qualifications were such that a surgeon could be qualified for a ship with about 180 men, but not one with 240 men — and it would cost another 170-180 to gain this qualification.

The whole system of qualifying as a doctor at this time was very vague and it is to be feared that the plan from the Naval Surgeons played some small part in complicating this.

At the new Chatham Dockyard was as at least as much as the men who worked at it — if there is a purgatory upon earth, it can be a hell, one Commissioner for Richard Smith was moved to prison in 1678. Men who worked in the Yard were similar to they had been during the previous century, only 180 in 1700 and there must have been an air of desperation about the place, which only Britain's military successes in the early 18th century dispelled.

The Yard in the first half of the 18th century underwent a transformation, as it had a hundred years before. The Admiral Superintending's House (1702), the Clerk of the Yard Building (1714), the Registry (1716), the Main Gate (1726), the Ship Loft (1729) and the Officers' Messengers, a fine image of 12 houses (1729) stand today much as when they were built.

In about 1711 a small row of buildings was erected against the wall of the Commissioner's garden to the North. This row still stands today (Plans 118 and is used as a residence club, but it seems to have been built to replace the old Surgeons' House of the Tudor Ward, not as his residence but as the best proper surgery. The contents of Staff Surgeon Dates, 150 years later (see Chapter 14) were some five feet above this building, but must have been a great step forward for the surgeon to work in a purpose built surgery.



Photo 18. *The Surgeon* 1111 1967

Thomas Dawson was still there at the Surgeon in 1780 but when he left or died is unknown, though he may have continued until Peter Lopez arrived in 1725. Four years later Lopez received a substantial pay rate — "persons' salaries was indeed still compared with those in ships. It was increased to £100 per annum and the surgeon was obliged to keep it his own expense, as a reward who had served these years under the Surgeon of a Dockyard or some other experienced Surgeon.

Although I have been able to discover no definite orders on the subject until 1854, it seems very likely that by the middle of the 18th century the Surgeon may have been required to give some orders as to the fitness of men to work when they entered the Yard, for a standing order stated that "no old lame, infirm or enfeebled" men were to be received. This may well be the beginning, of Henry Moulton's old rule as today, and a valuable tool of preventive medicine in industry.

The middle of the 18th century saw the great names of Robert Clive and William Pitt the Elder, First Earl of Chatham. While the former led the negotiations for the British Empire in the East, the latter's policies in Europe and America were making Britain the greatest power the world had known.

The picture that has become of become a public affair, a wrong Navy was needed to protect our shores, to maintain our lines of communication and to carry out orders to victory. In 1754 on Pitt's suggestion a bill for laying down 12 ships of the line was passed through Parliament and orders were given for the building at Chatham of a First Rate, a hundred gun ship, the speediest of the world's current of yesterday and the fastest Nuclear submarine of today. So it was that on 23rd July 1759 the keel of the most famous ship the world has known was laid in the Old Single Dock at Chatham, and HMS Victory was launched on 24 May 1795.

John Hammond, appointed in 1754 or before, was Surgeon in the Yard during Victory's building. Apart from his account, referred to in George III's answer for a sum of £14s. 6d. we hear nothing of him and he was succeeded in January 1759 by Hugh Mackintosh.

The Surgeon for which Evelyn had pressed in 1666 had never been heard though that at Portsmouth the Royal Naval Hospital Board was begun in 1745 and James Lind, the father of preventive medicine and author in 1754 of the famous Treatise of the Scurvy, was Physician-in-charge there when Mackintosh went to Chatham. In 1757 however decisions were given for the establishment of a Marine Infirmary at Chatham and a site was found. The infirmary was built shortly afterwards but whether it was used for injured men from the Dockyard I have not been able to discover though it is unlikely. What does seem probable is that it was the same infirmary which was converted in 1822 to become the British Hospital and this was certainly used by dockyard men until the Royal Naval Hospital was opened in 1865.

In 1760 when the younger Pitt was trying to restore wage order in the country following the years of war with and final loss of America there was no enquiry into all the Royal Dockyards - every officer was excused and enquiry made as to how work and pay. Mackintosh was no exception.

The commission of Hugh Mackintosh, Esq., whose name only is on 254 Douglas, 1761. It is contained in the list by Sir John Mordaunt of the Marine's Dockyard Chatham and has been in some hands, (27).

His duty is to take care of the Artillery, Lithography, Surgery and Surgery in all their parts and to maintain in doing them duty in the Yard, the necessary in its part to make the plan of building present and it is also a part of the duty to take charge of the Works after work, as they with the other officers of the Yard.

His commission is contained in the list of a commission by Sir John Mordaunt to be in the way to one of the officers during the working hours of the Yard.

The first salary of £100 a year, referred by the 1st of July 1761 to the 1st of July 1761, and he has an allowance of 20 per cent per month from the Artillery, Surgery, Lithography, Lithography, and the other parts of the Yard. It is which is also to be made there and paid to the Artillery, Lithography and Lithography in Surgery. The allowance amounted in the year 1761 to £124 4s. 4d. making his salary for that year £124 4s. 4d. which he paid for himself and his family and the remainder being £124 4s. 4d. he paid for his family and himself.

He is likewise one of the Surgeons in the Yard at Chatham for which he has a salary of £100 a year.

The list of other Employment in Dockyard under Commission are in three parts, Dockyard or Commission, and in the list of other Employment in Dockyard.

Mackintosh's statement is the first indication found that the Surgeons had charge other than medical to perform. Letters to and from the Yard at this time reveal a constant watch for theft from the Yard round which a high wall had been

constructed complete with windmills, when the Yard was developed further in the 18th century. A letter concerning the appointment of included a request officers from Dockyard Officers to the Admiralty in 1794, and it was presumably in connection with her duties, with the Wind that MacKenzie came to sign this, and he was thus involved in the safety and security of the Yard.

The clearance from carpenters mentioned indicates an average of 1,000 workmen at the Yard. The Ropeyard, both within the boundaries of the Georgian Yard but not within those of the Tudor Yard) was still not included in the figure, and it may have been as a result of the enquiry that this came about for an order of 1794 instructs the Surgeon to attend the Rope-makers for the first time. They have not been included in the figures for workmen in the Yard during the latter part of the 18th century given in Appendix A.

The end of the 18th century was a time of great activity in Chatham. The security of Britain across the water during the French Revolution led to a build-up of our Naval strength and war broke out again. By the closing years of the century, Napoleon was sleeping in Europe and England was in danger of invasion. In 1800 HMS *Phoenix* had been lying in the Medway for three years during which time she had been used as a Prison Hospital Ship. In that year the document was taken to remind her to her fighting role (Thamesian 1899) an operation which took the next three years to complete and cost nearly £11,000 as compared with the original building cost of £6,616.

Lady Nelson visited HMS *Phoenix* during her exile and is reported locally to have lived for a while with Lady Hamilton at Prospect Row, Brompton. One fine terrace still stands almost as it was then, and it can be seen in *Prospect's Parkway* of the Yard painted in 1782 and now in the National Maritime Museum (Plan IV). From the top windows of Number 12 Prospect Row, the house in which I lived for nine months, there is a fine view and it is possible that from here Nelson could have looked down over the Dockyard and watched HMS *Phoenix* being prepared for what was to be the greatest hour of British Naval history.

CHAPTER 11

1800-1899

Regulation of the Medical Service

The examination was the effect of the Dockyard in 1797 seems to have heralded a time when the organisation of all departments of Naval Dockyards came under close scrutiny. MacKenzie's death, as laid down in his disposition, has been vaguely defined and from this time on there comes a flow of orders and instructions. MacKenzie must have attended orders from HMS *Phoenix* as well as dockyard workmen for an order of 1801 required him to attend the sick of the Ordinary. It is in another order a few days later that the first definite instructions are given regarding the maintenance of new vessels into the Yard. This order states that all workmen and apprentices are to be examined on entry, that unless men have report to the Surgeon and their names are entered on the Sick List, they will have no claim for compensation, that the Surgeon is to supply powder to those



View of Charleston from the sea, showing the town, the harbor, and the surrounding country. The letters A through Q mark the locations of the various buildings and structures mentioned in the text.

Key

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| A Battery | J Charleston |
| B New Market | K Ball's Bluff |
| C Main Street | L Georgetown |
| D Ship Building | M Town |
| E Church | N Rogers |
| F Warehouse on Charles Street | O Marine Hospital (see also note to page 10) |
| G The Virginia Office | P Charleston Harbor |
| H Custom House | Q Charleston Harbor |

recovering horses during the performance of their duties, that the Surgeon is to keep a Bull Book in which the names of all those on the Bull List are to be kept.

In 1805 a large volume of orders was issued—instructions to the Commandant and Principal Officers of His Majesty's Dockyards. Macbride was not a Principal Officer nor Head of his own department but the Surgeon had a number of subordinates. He was required to examine all workmen, workmen and persons of every description and to issue a certificate of fitness. No Surgeon was allowed to enter the Yard and so apprentices, but such as are most well-grown boys not under the age of 14 years, or at least heights than four feet ten inches tall.

The first consideration is of particular interest for it came at a time when child labour was being exploited to the full in many industries, notably the cotton industry in Lancashire. It was many years before the use of such labour was prohibited for law and the Admiralty were well in advance of their time in the sense they required.

Another instruction states that none over the age of 15 is to be employed as a rigger or a riggers' labourer. The work of a rigger then was more arduous and dangerous than now, but again the Admiralty shows a concern for the safety of workmen general for that time.

The work, however, was not becoming easier. Working hours were still from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m. while light permitted with one and a half hours for midday dinner in the summer and an hour at the winter, presumably there was no dinner breakers in the Yard and most of the men went to their homes. They had half an hour for breakfast in the summer but in winter did not start work until eight having had their breakfast.

Certificates of sickness were also required—

If any workmen or other workmen should continue to be absent without leave for more than ten consecutive working days (see the Clerk of the Surgeon's instructions on discharge but it is the correct wording is one of sickness which are to be settled by the Surgeon).

The Surgeon then, like the General Practitioner today, was required to provide his own means of transport or to have one sent to another order.

There is a careful discussion drawn in the time between the Wounded and Hurt on the one hand and the Sick on the other. The Admiralty bearing perhaps from the early lessons of Drake, Hawkins and the *Chatham* (Ches) were primed in their attitude to the first but sickness is regarded as unfortunate but definitely not compensable. This is shown at all orders for Dockyards from then until it became recognized that some diseases were as much the result of a man's work as were physical injuries.

In 1805 the *Chatham* Ches of had left its berthplace. The lands were amalgamated with those of the Hospital at Greenwich and the Ches Room, the room in which the Surgeon examined applicants for permits, was taken to the Surgeon's was converted and became the Admiral's office. The *Chatham* Surgeon's connection with land pay from the Ches ceased.

Until 1805 when the new and more definite orders referred to above were introduced the Dockyard Surgeons were to be considered as civilians rather than Naval Officers. They were appointed by Warrant from the Navy Board not by the Admiralty.

ally, they were not liable to service at sea, and they did not wear uniform. The distinction between officers and sergeants is, however, a few one as far as Sergeants are concerned, for the Naval Sergeant is only distinct from his Dockyard colleague in that he served at sea. Another group of Sergeants, would have been regarded as Officers in the Navy until 1805 when an Order in Council permitted Medical Officers to wear a distinguishing uniform and to have similar rank with Officers of the same class as 'Your Majesty's land forces, so far as respects behaviour to Landward as Your Majesty's ships (Lloyd and Coulter, 1963).

Naval Sergeants reported that as their Chances to be considered as Officers of Warlike rank, but although this was officially the case, they were not considered officers until 1845. Furthermore they continued to be a different rate of pay between Dockyard and Sea Sergeants for another hundred years.

Whether Dockyard Sergeants donned uniform in 1805, I have been unable to discover, but another reason for considering the Sergeants as the Naval Officers from that date is that John White appointed in 1805 is mentioned in the list of Medical Officers in Scott's medical Navy List whereas Mackintosh who is known to have been in the Dockyard in 1794, two years after the list first appeared, is not mentioned.

At the beginning of the 19th century, there was a serious build up of the Navy and Dockyard Dockyard was building with a variety. The Battle of Trafalgar seemed for Britain a complete domination of the seas which was not seriously to be threatened for over a hundred years, and during this century, the size of the Navy was never again as large as it was in the Napoleonic Wars. For the 50 years or so after Trafalgar the Dockyard was a comparatively quiet place, remaining to ship new ships, were built there in 1842 (see Chapter IV).

During this period very little can be discovered about the Dockyard Sergeants or their work. Their appointments are recorded in the Navy List, but such paragraphs and reports as they may have written appear to have been discarded and there are few mentions of them in Dockyard letters.

The Dockyard Sergeants' chance had since 1805 been made up largely from the Surgeons from his patients but in 1808 this finally stopped. A new code of regulations was drawn up by which the Surgeon became a Promoted Officer of the Yard and Head of his own department. He was no longer required to provide and pay his own services and they took received a substantial rate of pay — the Surgeon in 1808 p.s. and his assistant in 1758 p.s. At that time they were considerably better paid than their colleagues at sea, but it seems likely also that they worked considerably harder for their remuneration. Their status in society was certainly higher.

As a result of the learning of Dockyard activity John White seems to have had some time on his hands for he was the subject of a complaint to the Admiralty in 1815. In some notes on Admiralty letters, referred to in the *Warrent Book* already mentioned we read:

23.11.1815. A message is from the medical men in the neighbourhood complaining of the Surgeons of the Dockyard (Drum, Corps and Hospital ship) following people practice contrary to instructions.

1170-17 — The differently shaped of the masses which form around the Sargasso Sea (the dotted line) and in the Pacific (the solid line) appear in all the β_1 and β_2 lines.

Figure 4. Left: Correlation between the experimental apparent rate change of Ca^{2+} release, Δk_{app} , and the TMR-induced relative change in Ca^{2+} release, Δk_{rel} . Right: Correlation between the experimental apparent rate change of Ca^{2+} release, Δk_{app} , and the TMR-induced relative change in Ca^{2+} release, Δk_{rel} .

¹¹ *Id.* at 100. The language is, of course, phrased from the perspective of the person who is discriminated and is directed to the person or persons who discriminate.

The final record was the low on the 5000 with a very low mean age

In 1811, when David Keanele was the Surgeon in a new set of instructions for the president of the Principal and Indian Officers of His Majesty's Dockyards was issued. For the Surgeon rate one of the Principal Officers there were 34 instructions which are listed below in an abbreviated form.

- [illegible]

Apart from the agreement, in which reference has already been made, the new act of order has a number of interesting features. The persons whom he was to arrest and rear and the times and places at which he should do this are more clearly stated than heretofore; particularly important being one of the last that provided, such as being not to be changed. General Fanning was now finally satisfied, including a code of ethics regarding treating other dealers, patients and the water and the complaints against him. While already mentioned, show that the local consumers were not in the way.

While aware of the Government's requirements in the Surgeon's role provided in a certificate to land forces, this still seemed to provide his own individual constraints.

Five seems to be the first time that the Surgeon was required to make quarterly reports to the Senior Medical Officer of the Navy in practice which is commensurate to this day. Previously the only routine reports made were to the Superintendents of the Yard with occasional reports to the Commensurate for the Sick and Wounded. The Dockyard Surgeons are now clearly regarded as being a part of the Naval Medical Service and thus responsible to a higher medical authority. Though epidemiology was hardly to find to have been incorporated in a wartime, the study of diseases was attracting interest. William Farr had already begun his life's work in the field and it was shortly after this time in 1836 that he was appointed as Compiler of Abstracts in the General Register Office. Farr's work was concerned mainly with births and deaths but clearly the Surgeon in the Dockyard was required to prepare an account of infectious disease and though his records must have been confined solely to the Dockyard and any diseases he produced would have been lacking much real epidemiological significance, these early studies of infectious diseases might well have been of some small use in determining their origins and mode of spread.

CHAPTER IV

1839-1843

The Medical Service in the time of William Gunn, M.D.

In the years of peace in the first half of the 19th century, Chatham Dockyard continued to make and to repair the wooden vessels which guarded England. While there was no urgency about this work, this was a time when the nation's capital ship-building expanded in an unprecedented way. Investment in its application to ship-building and the use of iron instead of wood was a natural consequence. Sir Mark Master, whose son Nathaniel designed the first iron ship, the Great Britain (launched in 1843) had built the New Mills in Chatham Yard in 1830-31, and therefore machinery was rapidly introduced, the main machinery being installed in 1836. With war in China interest in iron ships became intense and during this fascinating period in Naval history a doctor named William Gunn was appointed Surgeon in Chatham Yard. He was appointed on 1st July 1839, and a considerable amount of his six years in the Yard has centred on the massive progress of the Yard in this day. While all his official reports were forwarded the Surgery Letter Book in which he kept a copy of all letters to the Superintendents and a few others werey collected with Gunn's personal comments on the Surgeon's day concerned and provided the main source of information about the medical services in the Yard in the mid-19th century.

I have not unfortunately been able to discover a portrait of Dr. Gunn, but from his letters a picture of a shrewd, hard-working free engineer is more portrayed in mind firmly by his high principles. He was not afraid to discuss and was prepared to speak out for what he considered right in considerable terms. He must have been a fine man for whom to work and various letters show his thoughtfulness for his patients.

Dr. Gower's character emerges rapidly through his story. The second letter to the lords shows his contradictions.

15th August, 1570

Right worshipful Highes Magnyght, who long has ben let a long Henry Myght. Gower is a
 low, small shelled man, as he maye in his last letters, and more so, for he has my 15th day
 of the 15th letter, answered, as he is at present in making such place as cometh right to it.

Charles Gower had often visited the Devisard as a boy some 40 years before Dr. Gower's time as his father was employed as a clerk in the Cook Office. Two years before this time Gower had completed "Little Doreen," a story with readily evident traces of another place behind a high wall where Devisard also would have fathered — the children's prison. "We know that life in England in the middle of the 16th century was often cruel, yet Dr. Gower was obviously a man of compassion for his later letters to be a plea to keep Henry Myght in the payroll and safely employed."

Two days later we see another side of Dr. Gower's character and the tough Kent begins to emerge.

Charles Gower
 17th August, 1570

To the Right Honourable
 Sir,

I beg to apologise to you for not immediately sending the present enclosure, and here with
 regard to it to let the commissioners of the fleet say that Devisard, in the Ward who have
 the most of him to improve in the situation of the building of some buildings, possibly not
 so good. The situation is also most appropriate, being placed in a corner of the Ward, as
 they are situated with windows, which at work, have as the others some distance to the Surgery
 and their closed back, some before they can be placed out of the Ward.

The remaining rooms in the immediately small and a certain inconvenience, one short of the
 bed, and small, and a miserable, but during the summer from the north being the most covered
 with roof and from the position of a few which is certainly required for the Ward, the Surgery
 supplied a full room.

There is no longer place, but the convenience of a good room, at which appears of
 I had have been ordered during the last twelve months. I intend that they should be the
 complete one, two thirds of the whole room as from the rest of proper accommodation.

Your reason is that the matter has not been in favour of you could that very thing have been
 for it against the following reason.

There is an infinitely affected to the Surgery.

I am therefore, to request that you will move my Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty
 that they may be placed in position the situation of another Surgery in some, more and
 more convenient in the Ward.

I have the honour to be with you

William Gower M.D.
 Seal Surgeon

This letter shows a number of interesting features. Dr. Gower had obviously thought hard on his last six weeks in the Ward and had definite ideas on what a Devisard Surgery should be like. Firstly it must be placed in a central and convenient part of the Ward if opportunity out of its location is to be made. When the Surgery had first been used for that function in 1511 it was so placed, but by 1540 the Ward had expanded considerably to the north and the Surgery was now tucked away far from the main area of work. Secondly the building must be suited to the numbers using it. When the Surgery was opened in 1510 there were 1204 or an employee in the Ward and this number fell sharply to 100 in 1564 when there were only 500. During the 1550 century numbers were usually fairly small, but they increased again during the Napoleonic Wars then dropped again until the

sharp rise in the United States. At that period, Maytag was building up her factory and what was soon to become the greatest single power in the world has now become used to keep the large numbers of men employed in the United States out of a building union. The Chinese was well aware that otherwise business would stagnate.

At the same time, Ginn was visiting Lurie's lab working on attempts and Foster had yet to make his momentous discovery, but Ginn obviously had good ideas on chemicals, judging from his comments about ventilation, hot water and the need for a bathroom.

The "room where the medicines are kept" is well above water and from the appearance of the key in the door I would think Dr. Chen often used the room to take his medicines and his books from the damp cupboard which is now a store for cleaning equipment. I searched in vain amongst the shelves for some sign of the doctor's use as a medical store for 150 years.

Dr. Green's plans for a new company did not go very far. Her, along with her father, died in a plane crash in 1985.

NOTE. — One *Colletes* [in *Colletes subseriale*] and one letter of Mr. Doherty — it was never forwarded to Ashmead — and a list of letters it is the custom during their visits to the Ward in 1871 and 1872 — in which, directed the Clerk of the Works in progress a plan of the proposed Gregory which he did — this was also present in the book with my letter. W. G.

Dr. Gauss's work was not helped by the sickness of his assistant Dr. Peters, who was stricken on the St. Louis on 24th August, 1878.

by the collected forms in different of the same geographical and biogeographical systems of primary forest. There is also a lot of specific, past development of the different species, habitats, and ecological resources available.

A letter a year later confirms that he had returns which were endemic to the area until early in the 20th century. He was given these letters back later that August, and was never really in Spain, being avoided in November 1886 with a generous payment of £140 per annum plus 10s a week to Dr. Cline's local agents including a day-labourer, a capital of £2500 £100 £100 per annum or village more than he had received as American Surgeon in the Dockland.

The happy few do not include full nonstop interiors and it was only those who were admitted to hospital who were the subject of letters to the *Cyprian* Superintendent. This is still true today.

I attempted to analyze the reports of those sent to the hospital after being injured on duty, but, so few details are given that both of value had to be learned in the first three years of Dr. Goss's tenure of office. 71 injured men were sent to hospital of whom six are reported as having died. Nightwatchmen and laborers made up 50 of the number injured but it is likely that these formed a large percentage of the numbers, as the Yard. Many of these injuries were caused by falls on level floors, or from clocks.

An interesting inquiry which will be mentioned again later is that caused by an ash. This ash was consistently found by shpheraghe before the plant was removed and it may be significant that there were two squares in the left leg and only one in the right during the period and as half of each of these squares were mentioned by shpheraghe it is likely that the ash was *shpheraghe*. The fall leg would be more likely to be covered by a root-bounded surface with the ash.

Another story is of particular interest for on 11th June 1862, a vessel in Liverpool arrived at the wharves where at work was found HMS *Atalapha* which was the first new ship to be built at Chatham and this is the first time the word 'vessel' is mentioned. Work on the *Atalapha* had been started at the beginning of 1862 and the change in the nature of expenses being incurred on the Dockyard Survey was noted by Dr Goss.

In 1862 Dr Goss wrote a long letter to the Admiralty concerning his duties and an extended copy of the letter was sent in August 1864 to the Medical Director General of the Navy, Dr Hyslop. It reads as follows:

Dear Sir

In compliance with your directions I beg to transmit a statement of my daily and other duties as they have been performed very much of less owing to the varied character of the duties of the Dockyard staff and the great increase in the number of men employed.

Since the commencement of your ship building at this Yard nearly three years since the number working on the site of 100 per cent had they existed the present number January 1866.

The working hours of the Yard were six and being five per cent, were paid from 4.30 until 7.30 p.m. with the exception of half an hour a night but during the time employed on the ship duty, but the general number were up to that about equal to number employed on board the *Atalapha* at Chatham. From 10.30 to 12.30 p.m. the number of the Yard were divided into three shifts of that time with the exception of a number of men who of the *Atalapha* were sent shore by on the 2nd June, this day will stand as one of the most important days in the history of the Yard and this was very likely to happen from the weekly visits of these ships. *Atalapha* had not only increased in number of ships but they have also obtained a great deal in character from the improvement of your facilities in dockyards. In order to do the old one and other vessels maintenance, increased and great work amounts and from this date when they received permission to do the work, these had been and are now very, numerous lines of strength frequently, increasing their work.

In the line of new tools the most important is the introduction of the new, making improvements in the work of the Dockyard. In order to do this, the work of the Dockyard was divided up by the kind of work — the work of the Dockyard was divided up by the kind of work — and it is not that they are now more numerous than they formerly, there were several vessels employed by the Yard and are now more than 100.

It will be seen by the Dockyard staff that the number of men and land were almost equal to the number of men employed. This gives a very important, but of the work of the Dockyard and the Dockyard staff were more than 100 and the work of the Dockyard was divided up by the kind of work — the work of the Dockyard was divided up by the kind of work — and it is not that they are now more numerous than they formerly, there were several vessels employed by the Yard and are now more than 100.

It is always the custom for the Yard and that is shown to the Yard, when working at 10 p.m. The working hours were five hours and that was the last time that the Dockyard was divided up by the kind of work — the work of the Dockyard was divided up by the kind of work — and it is not that they are now more numerous than they formerly, there were several vessels employed by the Yard and are now more than 100.

When the present year of the Dockyard work, a further, the Dockyard staff were divided up by the kind of work — the work of the Dockyard was divided up by the kind of work — and it is not that they are now more numerous than they formerly, there were several vessels employed by the Yard and are now more than 100.

However, the Dockyard staff were divided up by the kind of work — the work of the Dockyard was divided up by the kind of work — and it is not that they are now more numerous than they formerly, there were several vessels employed by the Yard and are now more than 100.

There is a certain number of men in the Yard, frequently working on the Dockyard, the Dockyard staff were divided up by the kind of work — the work of the Dockyard was divided up by the kind of work — and it is not that they are now more numerous than they formerly, there were several vessels employed by the Yard and are now more than 100.

The following table will help to see clearly

1. A Surgery Book, which every medical student finding is valued by the surgeon as a copy.
2. A Guide Manual and Visiting Book.
3. A Book for a
4. A Book for a
5. A Book for a
6. A Book for a
7. A Book for a
8. A Book for a
9. A Book for a
10. A Book for a
11. A Book for a
12. A Book for a
13. A Book for a
14. A Book for a
15. A Book for a
16. A Book for a
17. A Book for a
18. A Book for a
19. A Book for a
20. A Book for a

I remain, dear Sir,
Yours very respectfully,
Wm. Loring
Chief Surgeon

The medical services in the Dockyard had obviously reached a high standard of efficiency — at least in theory — for this period. Dr. Gunn seems to have appreciated the fundamental principles of Industrial Medicine as far as was possible at that time and was running an organization which attempted to look after the working population to a high degree. Unfortunately, there are no records to tell us whether the fact reached up to the theory but it seems likely that to a great extent this was so from Dr. Gunn's obvious interest in detail.

Hardly three weeks through the lens of this letter the fact that the Staff Surgeon must have spent some time out in the Yard. The introduction of new methods and tools into the Yard had made an impact upon the medical branch and Dr. Gunn appears to have shown a greater interest in that than would a man who spent his day in the Surgery. His studies no doubt of this and it is a matter of comparison just how much time he spent seeing the new methods in action.

Now we find an obvious appreciation of the necessity to keep proper records. It is likely at fairly recent times that adequate use is being made of good records in Industrial Medicine generally and it seems likely that much of Dr. Gunn's work in this respect was wasted. Certainly we have no record of any attempt being made to analyze the results and turn them to any advantage. More will be said later concerning this but it is not surprising that no mention is made of work being done to prevent accidents or disease if no analysis of the records was undertaken.

It is of interest to note that the Navy did take responsibility in the Dockyard employees while they were out of the Yard. Men put on the War List received half pay for six months and were then usually awarded with a gratuity. There is mention in another letter in September 1861 of a hired man who had required severe and permanent repairs of the leg two or three months previously resulting apparently in amputation. He was receiving 12 shillings half pay from the Yard as well as 14 shillings from the Foremen Club — so that he was better off than when he was working. It seems likely that to receive his continuing payment — most noticeable at that time — the Yard was able to keep some record by sending the doctor to visit the sick and hurt in their homes which was mutually advantageous. We read elsewhere that a man was too weak — so he needed four miles from the Dockyard double the distance limited by the Admiralty, but most of the employees would have lived within two miles. Dr. Gunn was well

aware of the necessity to keep these men on the Sick List under observation and this business appeared as a letter mentioned before.

The most notable consequence from the Medical Officer's duties in the mid 19th century compared with today is that he seems to have chosen little interest in preventive medicine. Apart from examining all new recruits into the Dockyard no measures appear to have been taken which might have tended to lessen the number of accidents or disease in those working in the Yard. There was no Safety Officer at that time and the work of the Medical Department seems to have been centred in treatment and little rather than prevention.

However, Dr. Green was obviously kept busy. The examination of 1,350 new recruits in the year 1862 was discontinued. This was a result of the change over to building with steel. There was no sign of any discontinuities for the Medical Department and one must sympathise with Dr. Green in his own replacement work in the shipyard quarters of the old Surgery.

There is little recorded about the Surgeon's visits to the houses of Dockyard workers but on 31st October 1864 Dr. Green visited a surgeon named Telford who had been attending the Surgery every week and did not expect to be visited by me at his home. Dr. Green reports that he had been on the Sick List since 31st August and in the front part of his residence there is a fireplace ship marked with his name. In passing through this ship I found Telford, as a room behind with a fireplace's stove on smoking a pipe. He told all the appearance of having been very severely employed in killing or cutting men. Green goes on to say that there was no evidence of Telford being a soldier; he had not received a doctor as advised and that he was making a recommendation of the Sick List. The Captain Superintendent of the Yard agreed and Telford was discharged shortly after Dr. Green's visit, just as told.

Such was the pressure of work arising from the workshop accidents that Dr. Green asked for and was sent an Assistant Surgeon to work on board the ship after she was launched in December 1865. She was taken down again two miles and over 1,000 dockyard men continued to work on board during war. A Mr. Benjamin Bowering was the Surgeon appointed and his real work much to Dr. Green's satisfaction according to a certificate he was given on leaving was months later. During that time seven men are recorded as being sent to hospital with various injuries and another five as killed in accidents on board.

There is very little mention in Dr. Green's letters of the staff employed in the Surgery. Nursing in a profession was in its infancy and no systematic training was available outside the London Teaching Hospitals. Indeed it was many years before that time started on nursing instruction and the staff of the Surgery in the mid 19th century would almost certainly have been ordinary labourers who must have learned what they could from the Surgeons in the Yard. The only member of the staff other than the doctors mentioned by Dr. Green in the Surgery Messenger. Samuel Martin occupied this post for over 36 years before his retirement only in 1861 in which time he had served in the Dockyard for 46 years and 11 months. He had been paid 7s. 6d. per day for seven days a week when he retired a total of £52 13s. 8d. per annum and received a pension of £32 11s. 3d.

and another. He intended not leave the family business for his son William succeeded him. His duties were obviously not nearly as many, messages for him were negligible. In attendance in case of accidents with 10 gins.

We are not told the arrangements for the transport of the injured, but some sort of ambulance was in use from 1836 for Dr. Green states, "the spring carriage used by me for the transportation of the Hurt and Sick" mentioned in this year as 1836 at a cost of £150.00. He goes on to talk of a better one made in London and used in the Westwick Ward.

It was presumably on this carriage that injured men were conveyed when necessary to hospital. The Melville Hospital (named after the first Sea Lord of the line) was opened in 1837 being most conveniently situated not far from the main gate of the dockyard and having succeeded the Royal Marine Infirmary. It was used by the Army and Navy as well as the Dockyard but ordnance from the latter were admitted in treatment only when hurt. In a letter to the Medical Director General of the Navy in October 1861 Dr. Green writes:

Our men with Hurt are always sent to hospital when necessary, and as being in their nature are returned on the ship it is the custom the best of the 4 gins situated in the Hospital or sent out in a special risk, some of the Dockyard men, upon the completion of their belonging to the Fleet, 4 gins, are sent out to the 10 gins - this risk - for it means only a few more gins. Some were returned to the Hospital when sick.

The proximity of the hospital made a great difference in the treatment of the injured. Hurt and men by having personal their were no problems about admitting patients as there may have been in civilian hospitals and the standards in Service hospitals in the treatment of wounds and injuries were probably as high as anywhere and better than most. The supply with which patients could be removed to hospital continued to make a considerable difference in the efficiency of the medical services in the dockyard and the second Royal Naval Hospital was transferred to the Ministry of Health in January 1901.

Services for the rehabilitation of these handicapped through injury were not free during Dr. Green's time but he made some efforts in this field. Treatise had for many years been provided for those suffering from - and money for their convenience but with the cessation of anything the men no return to work, as is shown in another letter referring mainly to an unsuccessful petition for payment of the expenses of two men, each of whom had lost an eye while working in the Yard.

His first intention to attend the Catherine's Hospital in Madras and they saying no money then it was not possible. They say was granted during their time on the Fleet List. A great eye, through of my eye to the extent that it nearly impaired his sight - on the risk of a rupture it is difficult to know to suppose to credit the intention to continue in his work and prevent the rupture getting larger.

Another provision was supplied in John Kane a shipwright apprentice who was injured in May 1860 when aged 25. He received a wound of the right leg. He was quarters months on the Fleet List continually returning with a severely cut, fractured limb and in 1867 he had to go over the London Hospital for an operation on it. In February that year Dr. Green writes:

A few gins have been employed to supply woodwork in the Fleet List a leg in the Fleet List with the most and mechanical appliances and as it was the day but it was equal to the loss of a limb of the leg had extended as in consequence of their limb for the matter of which the under matter is in relation to some of the men in the Fleet List, which is the same as the under matter.

The Surgeon of the Yard has no means of applying mechanical appliances of the kind — they are usually made and fitted for each case, by a London instrument maker and paid for by their *Overseas* Authorities.

Dr. Goss's plan was successful, these Loochings following the four patients' cost of the instrument to be paid by the Admiralty.

Some of Dr. Goss's duties were very much public health work. On 2nd June he was requested to examine residences in the Dockyard for their fitness for habitation and he issued a record of visits to one such house and to the police cells.

25th May 1862

To the Captain, Superintendant
Do.

I beg to report that Dr. de Forest has recently reported in the temple of the Museum of the Yard is a very interesting house, among the dwell of one of his children. Mr. Brewster residence is, in this respect, very important to health in its present state. The house is very old and its entire part is damp that the windows are in the walls has become much decayed and its damp walls covered with fungus. Its situation as well as the house is very considerably improved. The big stone chimney and the windows to which are a light escaping to the outside — indeed, a ray of sunlight comes across the dwelling.

I beg to recommend a visit to observe the spread of disease and perhaps first-class symptoms that Mr. Brewster's residence should be put in proper condition which can only be done by the immediate demolition of the House No. 18.

Knowledge of bacteriology and epidemiology in 1862 was slight but again we have evidence of Dr. Goss's appreciation of the effect of poor environmental conditions upon health. While he probably knew nothing of fungus, he obviously knew of the value of light, warmth and ventilation in the control of infectious diseases.

A year later Dr. Goss found the police cells to be in a similar damp and ill-ventilated state and made several recommendations for their improvement. Whether anything was done seems very doubtful for the cells were used as stores and in exactly the same state today, though something must have been done to reduce the dampness which was coming through the wall.

There are many references in Dr. Goss's letters to the effects of the change in the Midway area and he reports several cases of malaria in this damp and spartan locality. He asked for Sick Leave for several patients with dysentery saying that removed from the banks of the Midway to a soldier and their health would benefit their health. Dysentery was not a disease which would have been made as Dr. Goss's term, but today it takes many days' work to be less than any other single disease in Chatham Dockyard the dampness of the area being put to bed now as then.

An initial letter the Surgeon was requested to report cases of particular interest to the Medical Director-General and he refers in his letters to four patients suffering from lead poisoning or painter's colic. Two of them died and their names recorded gravely. It is of special interest to note that were suffering from the disease were placed on the Fleet List, not the Sick List and therefore that the etiology of the disease was quite clearly acknowledged as being occupational. Those on the Fleet List received full pay for six months, while those on the Sick List were paid nothing by the Yard though various duties existed as a voluntary basis to ensure that the product kept and left suitable by soldiers.

One of the most unusual injuries recorded is that to Thomas Radd, a spacer in the Roperyard who

received a serious injury on the left side of the chest, over the region of the heart by being crushed when the iron cage, hanging through the main surface in the roof of the building passed on the shoulders of the Prince of Wales and I am of the opinion that the injury that occurred caused him to drop at which he died when very young and prolonged suffering to the 4th end.

As the future King Edward VII was married on 26th March, 1867, and Radd died on 4th March, 1868, his suffering was indeed prolonged. In this case we have another example of the Admiralty's generosity to an employee. Radd's injuries were not caused directly by his work, but as they occurred (and) under the Dockyard Government liability was accepted by the Admiralty as an act when employees generally were almost brutally hard on their treatment of employees, and Radd's widow was paid a pension of £12 per annum.

There is much more of interest in the Letter-Book from which I have quoted having to do with a patient of an Occupational Health Service of ancient) capitalisation for as they controlled by a hard working intelligent Scot, but Dr. Gunn eventually had to leave. The following letter from the Secretary of the Admiralty dated 15th July 1862 was sent to Captain Stewart, the Captain Superintendent of the Dockyard

Sir

I was commanded by my Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty to inform you that Dr William Gunn, Staff Surgeon of the Royal Dockyard having received the vote of a majority for the day, been placed on the General List of Medical Officers, and granted the Secretary rank of Deputy Inspector General of Officers and Plans.

Dr Gunn was formally relieved by Staff Surgeon John King on 2nd August 1862, but appears to have had a month's leave before leaving his residence, November 5. The Terminus for his services has just been on 3rd September. This is a statement for his Accountant, but makes a fitting memorial for Dr Gunn himself.

Before leaving the Dockyard, I wish to put on record the high opinion I entertain of his professional skill and ability. Of Dr J. R. Holston the Assistant Surgeon, and in fact assistant to the very able and extraordinary surgeon to which he is still under performed with equal skill, says, his father (Gunn) who of late years, particularly since the construction of one of ship building, has been in the middle of the other will share most warmly, especially that of one of the staff men (King) at their residence which is the excellent and valuable recommendation of a most able general.

While here and during so short a time, I have shared personally and in general medical aid. Dr Holston was always anxious to procure the immediate attention of men on the ship and their land.

With cheerfulness and willingness, he always felt anxious to make the duties of the Staff in 1862 and afterwards to see the people — the day and the many acts of extraordinary kindness I have much enjoyed and willingly bear testimony thereto.

Wm. Gunn, M.D.
Staff Surgeon

CHAPTER V

1866-1868

An Organized Medical Service

The last 1866 was a year of great change in the Dockyard. The great increase in work following the building of our ships, made expansion of the Yard essential but the only direction in which this was possible was to the north which was an area of marsh. Beyond Saint Mary's Church, by Saint Mary's Island an area of

swamp which lay over the continued encroachment of nature. In 1684 this island was purchased by the Admiralty and the plans of 1684 show much of this area under reclamation. A wall was built around much of the island, using labour provided by the Current Prison which was rented at about the same time to the north end of the Yard in the area now occupied by Naval Barracks. On the land which had been cleared a brickfield was started in 1685 and this provided material for the walls on the Barrack which were constructed under Royal Navy Command. Number One Barrack on the west was opened in 1771 and by 1853 the three barrack areas in use and buildings were springing up around them. With these great changes the Yard took on an altogether different shape both physically and functionally for the main work in the Yard was and has been ever since concentrated around these new barracks, though building and repair still take place on the old slips and docks along the west side of the Dockyard.

Dr Gunn had complained bitterly about the old Surgery (see page 42). In 1839 he was concerned that the Surgery was 'most inconvenient being placed at a corner of the Yard and throughout has been done by had compared for a new, more central building. Soon after his retirement a new purpose-built Surgery was erected. Far better and better designed than the last it is a pity that it was constructed only about two hundred yards north of the old Surgery, for by that time the work at the new Yard was well advanced. However Dr Gunn had insisted on driving up the plans for the new building and had personally approved the site, for work was begun in about 1842 and after over 150 years the old Surgery was left as lost. It is still there (Plat. 17) as it had been roof of which Dr Gunn complained, replaced by tiles and is used as a recreation club for Dockyard Officers.

The number of employees in the Yard continued to increase after Dr Gunn's departure and a new problem was presented to his successors when in 1860 women were first employed in the Yard. This became necessary because for the first time in the history of the Yard there was a shortage of labour and ever since that time there have been women employed in the old Surgery. This building deserves some special mention for it is now unique in the country and possibly the world. Built in 1797 it is a four-storey building, very much the same today as when it was constructed, and though machinery was introduced in the nineteenth century and electricity in the twentieth century the methods of working and laying ropes have altered very little throughout the history of the building which is capable of laying or reaps of infinite length at nearly a quarter of a mile long. The introduction of man made fibres has made the requirements for strands and cord rope a tiny fraction of what they were and the Surgery at Chatham is the only one in it believed that still serves its original purpose. While no doubtless they have its roots in antiquity modern medicine has not allowed the Surgery to ignore the progress of time and an interesting ropey was carried out in the building into the clouds of time on rope workers (Plat. 17 of 1963).

It has already been noted that Medical Officers were not Commissioned Officers of the Royal Navy until 1847. Before that time the Surgeons at Chatham

Doyle had served 19 years' punishment before and more had worked there for more than twenty years. By 1941 (1942) Dr. Connel's resignation, the Surgeon's appointment to the Yard was for a period of time to his death, but since then no Medical Officer has worked in the Yard for longer than three years except during the Second World War. As he, being seen Dr. Connel maintained close contact with his superiors in London and with increasing time of administration the department of the Medical Director General was far more in control of the medical services of the Dockyard than had been the case for the last two hundred years of its history. With chief appointments and greater supervision, the Dockyard Medical Officers were much less able to support their own personnel upon the Yard and maintain their own share and the service true today.

Very few records remain of the work in the Department before the First World War. In order to minimize the records system at the Admiralty it was decided to destroy all records more than fifty years old except those of public interest. There are therefore none of the Medical Officers' Quarterly Journals written before 1914 to examine except for a large volume of duplicates covering the period 1887-1895 which somehow survived along with Dr. Connel's letter book in the library at Chatham.

These reports show primarily a complicated statistical system for the Sick leave absence in the Yard. Though there is no evidence to show whether there proved of any value for the destruction of records in the Admiralty, it is not possible to find out what was made of the Dockyard Surgeon's compliances. Apart from these tables which will be described later, there is a list of the sick and wounded at the Yard, of those employed in the Yard who had died during the preceding three months and those who had been sent to hospital or passed with wounds during the same quarter, and the report ended with some remarks by the Surgeon.

The method of duplication of the Sick leave absence tables has caused many of the main headings to be omitted. In several of the tables there have been pen entries and it is possible to see how they were completed. The horizontal rows are divided into thirteen general headings for diseases, each subdivided into individual diagnoses, and two rows, one for wounds and injuries also subdivided and one for deaths. The general headings are numbered 1-3241 and I have used various quarterly records to show these headings and examples of the diseases included under them, which are shown in Appendix B. The vertical columns show for each individual diagnosis the number occurring in the last and first half of the previous month, the number added to these lists during the current quarter, the number returned to duty, the number sent to hospital, the number who died and those remained, and the number remaining on the lists at the end of the quarter. These numbers are then broken down to show the cases arranged according to different age groups, the groupings used being 15-25, 25-35, 35-45, 45-55 and 55-65. There are then two final columns showing the total number of new cases under each diagnosis during the quarter and the number of days sickness incurred by these cases.

There seems, unfortunately to be a fatal flaw in these tables, which makes

It is impossible to gain an accurate picture of the savings duration of a group of sailors for any particular deployment. For the number of days, sickness and the number of cases in the final columns usually refer only to the new cases occurring and the number of days, sickness, suffered by those who were well and in the end of the campaign does not seem to be taken into account.

At the end of the year a table referred to as the Statistical Abstract was prepared but, presumably due to the anomaly already referred to it is not possible to help (leave figures with the quarterly sources). The figures from a complete Statistical Abstract are given in Appendix C and a summary of the Abstract for 1430-82 (exclusive) which are all those included in the Journals in Appendix B.

The remarks of the Surgeons during the period vary considerably in length, style and content. Sometimes the Surgeons comment heavily with a few brief general comments and sometimes he works his way through the clinical details with notes on each section. Sometimes he makes bold statements of fact and occasionally he offers some constructive suggestions. Frequently he comments on outstanding cases which have occurred but detailed accounts of these seem to have been sent separately. It seems to have been usual to compare the quarter with the previous one especially if the comparisons were favourable, but rarely was an attempt made to compare with the same quarter of previous years. From these remarks we find that men were frequently sent on compulsory leave during a period of quarantine for an infectious disease, but no mention of these cases, but is made in the Statistical Tables.

In order to give some indication of the type of potential results made, I give below two examples. Dated within 7th September 1971

³There is a slight reduction in the number of fish lost on the bank and there have been good results with the last system, using 200 ftm. wire making obstructions for nearly a hundred feet almost nil due to the current.

Systemic disease appears to have been less prevalent. Thrombotic persons were almost as susceptible to leg ulcers as the patients of vascular and skin beds at these levels — 100% of the former and 90% of the latter.

Twelve hundred and twenty-five acres of native eucalypt were located at the Baggery being an extension of the hundred and fifty acres the Government owned.

This year, as every year, we'll be working hard to give you the best possible experience.

In United States v. *Wicks*, 13 F.3d 1000, 1001 (9th Cir. 1994), the court stated that the "discovery" rule is not applicable in cases involving the discovery of a latent defect in a building. The court stated that the "discovery" rule is not applicable in cases involving the discovery of a latent defect in a building. The court stated that the "discovery" rule is not applicable in cases involving the discovery of a latent defect in a building.

[1] In Section 8 there are two paragraphs for dependent on events being, and for for you. The passage were referring to the phrase "referring and answering with the tag to some action the kind of knowledge that is relevant".

■ Two-time winner of *Jeopardy!*, Alexander Olshansky, at a New York World magazine event.

IV (Lundberg) (1988). A case of *Haemaphysalis punctata* with cardiac disease and a discussion of the nature and distribution of ticks.

As I. Kurylow notes, however, in this case, there is a case, rather of demonstrative compared with locative. The difference can be easily shown by the use, for example, of body-parts, and the demonstrative might be contrasted with body parts against non-demonstrative locatives and body parts. Thus differences, as I think, can be traced to the nature and use of the terms.

[illegible]

and killed 2 birds (1 "belong" death specimens among Dockyard employees, which is fed under extremely dry conditions, still being able to pick up one bird).
 Pigeons: There were only eleven deaths for local gathering during the quarter and they were birds in an early stage. These were all taken during a September visit when by the latest estimate 15,000 pairs of these specimens.

Worms and Flukes: There are two hundred and thirty specimens mostly off on the first half of the quarter (mostly of worm). Two deaths occurred from a parasite on 10. Thomas lost 11 lbs. brought down by worms, into a dry tank, and J. O. Higgins, 28 in length, whose death was caused by the sucking of a large fish when. They took and thirty, which seemed to be fatal and thus were most severely exposed.

James Thompson
 Peter Burgess

From the statistical returns for the quarter we find that there were 13 cases remaining on the Wilt and Hart Lines from the previous quarter and 500 new cases were added. Of these 484 were returned to duty 15 were sent to hospital 3 died, 5 were arrested and 44 remained on the List. I would have expected these sent to hospital to be included amongst those remaining on the List but this was not so. The total of 491 cases required 9,555 days of sickness during the quarter but as has been mentioned already the habit of taking the number as a whole unit and not the cases beginning or ending in the quarter makes it impossible to determine the average duration of spells of sickness. We can, however, guess the total number working in the Yard although not have the figure of 5,317 is arrived at. If this can be accepted as a reasonable figure for the population at risk, we have an average number of days sickness per 1,000 employees at risk of 1,779 though this figure was not worked out in the returns. Unfortunately these figures are not exactly comparable with those recorded today on which estimates of made in 1,000 Clapton.

There are many features even of this one report which are interesting, but no real benefit would be gained by additional comment except perhaps to the heading for "Pigeons". Lead poisoning had long been mentioned as we have seen in Dr. Gurnea's reports and it may seem surprising to find eleven cases still occurring as a quarter and considered acceptable. In the returns it is noted that these eleven cases involved a total of 169 days' sickness between them.

Another report by the same Surgeon that for the quarter ending, 30th September 1913 is of a different type.

The report for the past quarter was, I think, to, thoroughly completed even with the fact which showed a large amount of sickness, mainly on the Wiltshire. The number of cases here, being still in the hospital, has been mentioned here last figure.

Only three persons have been placed on temporary work, having done the quarter, the specimens being reported in three separate batches. Several cases of parasites occurred on the remaining Wiltshire, Gurnea's report that (Dockyard) among the specimens that the specimens taken have been diagnosed.

There were thirty deaths and with cases of some others provided as in the quarter, as well as some deaths in the quarter. As would a large number of these were probably in the 1st, which would naturally suggest that the quarter had an epidemic which should be followed by the proper treatment of such cases in this area and on the first record of sickness in the quarter.

James Thompson
 Peter Burgess

This was one of the few reports containing some constructive criticism but when because of these suggestions we are not told. It is of interest to note on both these reports the remarks on pulmonary diseases, a disease which regularly affects the Dockyard Absement on the Dockyard today.

At the end of the nineteenth century there was a sophisticated organisation for the medical care of Dockyard Personnel, freely established and running smoothly if in a somewhat slow Victorian fashion. There had in fact been but few changes in the department in the previous fifty years though there must have been some increase in efficiency for larger numbers (over 6,000 in 1900) were now being cared for. Communications and transport systems would certainly account for some spreading up of the organisation and there had also been some changes in staff though the number of doctors remained the same.

Early in the twentieth century the use of electricity made the first major change in the pattern of ship building, was the introduction of steel and an Electrical Engineering Department was formed at Chatham in 1900. This must have brought new medical problems but we have no records of them. The greatest build-up of the Royal Navy and the full implementation of the new facilities at Chatham meant that the Dockyard was very busy up to and including the First World War, when the British Navy was the most powerful fleet the world had known. It included submarines and Chatham began the long tradition which continues to this day of building these vessels when the C.I.P. was launched in 1909.

Throughout the first half of the twentieth century the Yard has continued to alter according to the changing pattern of ships. With these alterations the Medical Department has had to make some changes but throughout this period there were very few and the system of operating and even the records and reports show little variation from those to which reference has been made. During the Second World War there were 15,000 people, including 3,500 women, normally employed in the Yard. One thousand three hundred and sixty ships were repaired and 18 submarines, one transport and 5 other vessels were built. The Dockyard was naturally a target for German bombers and 90 high explosive and incendiary bombs hit the Yard, killing 15 people and wounding 107. All the put considerable strain on the Medical Services of the Yard which were under the change throughout the war of a single Senior Medical Officer, Surgeon Commander P. M. Bruce R.N.

In the first half of the twentieth century, although the Medical Services were affected in the long by two world wars, the changes in ship services were more in detail than in policy or major action. The Royal Naval Hospital, Chatham, formally opened by H.M. King Edward VII on 26th July 1905 had stood as the second line of defence throughout the war and it was not until the introduction of the National Health Service in 1948 that radical changes were made in the Dockyard Medical Services.

CHAPTER VI

1948-1966

The Medical Services Today

At the time of the implementation of the National Health Service Act in 1948 the three main bases for Naval personnel were situated on Portsmouth, Plymouth and Chatham. Each of these main ports who had large dockyards and a Royal Naval Hospital and excellent services were available not only to members of the Armed Forces but also for dockyard personnel. In short, the bases were

trained in the Naval Hospital for medical or surgical procedures using only one of their work but at present full advantage was taken of the proximity of the hospital to the medical advantage of employer and employees in the dockyards.

The hospitals proved as they were for wartime conditions were comparatively better staffed than the civilian hospitals and it was possible to obtain early outpatient appointments and admissions for patients from the dockyard, which meant that those requiring hospital treatment had less time away from work, or on restricted duties. Radiography, physiotherapy, ophthalmology and pathology and other services were all available only a few minutes from the Yard which was thus able to provide an almost complete medical service for its employees. Though these kind of course their own private general practitioners as had been the case for many years. Relations between general practitioners, the hospital and the dockyard were very close, many general practitioners in the area being honorary members of the Medical Staff in the hospital.

When the Welfare State provided free medical care for all, it was no longer economically sound for the Admiralty to maintain three Naval hospitals. The smallest and nearest to Chatham was the civilian site kept in at the late 1950s it was decided to close the Naval Hospital and the other dockyard in the area, at Sheerness also closed to function as a Royal Yard. As a result on January 13 1961 the Royal Naval Hospital Chatham was transferred to the Ministry of Health (Lloyd and Cochrane 1963a).

Other changes were also within the dockyard itself. As in 1910 there was considered to be a need for new administrative procedures in the management of the dockyard. We have seen how these affected the Medical Department in the new orders issued in 1933 when the Surgeon became a Principal Officer of the Yard. When the later re-organization was planned it was decided that the alterations to the management structure should take place at Chatham as a pilot scheme and this started in 1946 and was completed by the end of 1947. A General Manager was introduced who had charge of Planning Production Finance Personnel and Yard Services departments; the Admiral Superintendent occupying the position equivalent to the Chairman of a civil company with direct control of some of the auxiliary departments including the Medical Department.

The position of the Medical Department was subject to some debate as it was felt by some that it would be more administratively if the Senior Medical Officer were directly responsible to the Personnel Manager. It was considered however that this would hinder the Senior Medical Officer from having direct access to the top echelons of management and that the central position of the Medical Department between management and employees might be endangered. These two important principles were more rightly regarded as outweighing any advantage of administrative reform and the Senior Medical Officer remained and still is head of his own department and responsible directly to the Admiral Superintendent and to the Medical Director-General Naval.

Although the Royal Naval Barracks had ceased to exist as a depot the buildings remain and Chatham now forms the headquarters of all training for the Supply Department of the Royal Navy. As a result the Naval Messes were as

fully occupied shortly after the closure of the Berberke as before. Apart from the considerable numbers of officers and ratings attending courses there are always several ships in port so the necessity to maintain an adequate Naval Sick Quarters remains. With the closure of the hospital the Sick Quarters were enlarged and improved and some facilities such as the dining and recreation of Medical Staff and the Mass Mammography Unit, which had been in the hospital were transferred to the Sick Quarters and are available for the dockyard medical officers to use.

Within the dockyard further building and the alterations of the management structure meant that even more of the work was being centred around Mainbery Quay and Two Bays. The grounds of the Dockyard Society was inconvenient for the needs of most of the staff and of the Yard and a Farm-Aid Plot, situated by one of the Sapper Arrebarde was being used by the Medical Department to prevent unnecessary waste of time but this was not an altogether satisfactory arrangement, as supervision was not easy and the maintenance of two buildings was inconvenient.

The management alterations had led to the building of new office blocks within the Yard and a block built in 1933 for the Engineering Department became vacant. Situated geographically close to the centre of the Yard an island where there is no tidal coverage, and close to the Foreberke Quay of the Yard it seemed promptly suitable for a new Medical Centre and as a cost of about £1000 was converted to this end (Photo V). It was opened by the Medical Director General of the Navy in September 1967. The old Sengery which had served so well for 60 years was itself converted through out until 1966 into an office for medical staff.

Before the move to the new centre important changes had taken place within the Medical Department in the keeping and filing of records. Since World War One Gunn had used the Record Books in use in 1883, there had been considerable little alterations in the system of noting matters relating to the Department and in 1958 the Senior Medical Officer, Sengery Commander A. W. W. Robinson and the Senior Sengery Assistant Mr R. Adams undertook an entire revision of the whole system. Until then Sick Abstracts had been recorded on a Sick Book of which about four were used annually in the Yard. A separate entry was made in an Index Book at the same time. To construct a matrix Sick Record then necessitated a search of all Index and Sick Books and in cases of illness for some persons when it was sometimes necessary to look back for 25 or more years, this operation could involve the expenditure of as much as 60 man hours. This was to say the least - a cumbersome procedure.

The reorganisation of the records system took over six months to complete but was well worthwhile as it is now possible to produce a Sick Record for each a compensation claim in about two minutes. An Abstract Card is kept in the Casualty Department, a Medical Record Card is kept in the Sick Office and a file containing all other data (hospital notes, sick statements, interview, compensation examinations etc.) is in the Mass Records Office, and in these three places every relevant medical detail of any individual employee from the time he enters the



Photo No. 1. The Medical Center Building.

Yard can be found. Records of those who leave the Yard temporarily or permanently are kept in a separate office, the Dead Records Office, until the employee is of an age when the rules are considered to be of no further value. This movement is made usually to avoid the unnecessary accumulation of records.

The system of medical record-keeping in all departments was started by a work study team in 1938 and it was decided that the system explained in this book should be introduced generally.

It has been noted above that these records refer to industrial employees. William Quen had experienced difficulty with non-industrial employees when he was in the Yard particularly with a Junior Clerk with the Happy Families' standing name of Mr. Speck, who considered it was very lowering to be obliged to visit the Surgery which from Dr. Quen's discipline was certainly not a place which would have been visited with very great pleasure. Whether it was for such reasons or for some others I have not discovered, but non-industrial employees have not for some years been treated other except in emergency and for medical examinations when involving absence on duty in the Medical Centre.

The industrial employee's first introduction to the Medical Centre is very early in his career in the department, for when the Personnel Department is able to offer him for first a job, he is sent to the Medical Centre for a medical examination.

A medical record card is immediately started for him with all relevant details and thus a medical history is established.

Until quite recently the medical qualification for a Surgery Assistant was the possession of a St John's or equivalent First Aid Certificate. Officially this is still true today but in practice it is necessary to be a State Certified or State Registered Nurse, or to be employed at Chatham. Many of the assistants are former Naval Sick Boat Attendants or Royal Army Medical Corps Orderlies with considerable experience of casualty work and occupational disease, and the range casualty work at Chatham can be left to the Surgery Assistants with experience and assistance from the Medical Officers as required. This leaves the latter free to undertake the large number of medical examinations required by Service or by dockyard regulations, for administrative duties and for the study of the working conditions within the Yard.

The staff of the Medical Department in September 1966 was as follows:

- 1 Senior Medical Officer (S.M.O.)
- 2 Assistant Medical Officers (A.M.O.)
- 1 Senior Surgery Assistant (S.S.A.)
- 4 Surgery Assistants (S.A.)
- 1 Nurse
- 1 Secretary
- 1 Clinical Assistant

The duties and medical operations of the department are laid down in three books of regulations — R.R. 204, 205 and 206. As the Medical Officers are also Appointed Factory Doctors, they have duties under the Factory Acts, though many of these are contained in the R.R.s. There are 21 categories of medical examinations laid in the R.R.s and a summary of these is given in Appendix E, in which are also listed several of the non-statutory examinations undertaken by the Medical Officers who are, of course, available to see anyone who so wishes during the working hours of the dockyard.

The dockyard working hours are 8 a.m. to 4.30 p.m. five days a week, but overtime is commonly worked. Whenever more than a hundred men are at work in the Yard, the Medical Centre is open and manned and this is normally necessary from 8 a.m. to 4 p.m. Mondays to Friday, and 8 a.m. to 12.30 p.m. on Saturday, while work at night and on Sundays is not infrequent. The Medical Officers are not necessarily on call outside the normal working hours for they share duties for the whole port area with the Medical Officers of R.N.A.S. Pembroke (formerly the Royal Naval Dockyard). Thus they are required to perform duties other than at the dockyard while the Medical Officers from R.N.A.S. Pembroke have very occasionally been required to work at the dockyard.

Other duties of the Medical Officers are many and varied. They frequently involve co-operation with civilians with whom most Naval Medical Officers have little or no contact, such as Local Authority Health Departments, Local Fire officials, Metropolitan Sanitation, the Paramounts of Police, Resident and Inland Coastguard firms and H.M. Inspector of Factories, to mention but a few of these seen during my time at the Yard. The Medical (and Surgery) Officers give lectures

to all opportunities in the Dockyard Training College and other formal and safety lectures are given to all those working in about First Aid Certificates (with the welcome cooperation of Yard Managers who give them time) and to local Civil Defence workers. In addition to these duties it is essential for the Medical Officers to maintain close contact with the Safety Officers in constant supervision of the working conditions in the Yard. It is also one of the duties of the Medical Officers to examine at their homes all those who have been on the Sick List for more than three months and make recommendations for extension of their Sick Leave or for repatriation.

The Junior Surgery Assistant (J.S.A.) is a permanent Civil Servant, able to provide continuity in a department in which the Medical Officers change frequently. Thus Mr R. Adams, the present J.S.A., has occupied the post since during the time of five former civil engineers, Assistant Medical Officers. The J.S.A. is able to provide knowledge of working conditions, personnel, hospitals, local Auxiliary Health Services and much more besides within which the work of the Medical Officers would be most difficult. He supervises the work of the Surgery Assistants and is responsible to the Senior Medical Officer for their assistance and work and his knowledge of the Dockyard Regulations are over many hours and thousands. Thus the J.S.A. is in the position of a General Practitioner whose advice can make or break the work of the Medical Department and especially by his local knowledge have a profound and important influence upon the attitude of dockyard employees to the Medical Department.

The Surgery Assistants apart from dealing with much of the routine work, are able to take simple X-rays with the portable unit in the Centre and to give simple physiotherapy. They have closely with the Safety Department in the early reporting and investigation of accidents, give instructions to workers travelling abroad and are responsible for the accurate recording of their work, including preliminary examination such as height, weight, vision etc. of all those applying for medical examination. The nurse is responsible for these duties in connection with the female industrial employees in the Yard at whom there are about 500 at present.

While the Secretary is responsible for all secretarial work for the Medical Officers, the J.S.A. and the Clerical Assistant (the last named holds a secret appointment function as the second-in-command of the Department). All those who fill such and have Secret Security Facilities Certificates in the Medical Centre and it is the responsibility of the Clerical Assistant to ensure they fill details of the illness as entered on the certificate are noted on the Medical Record Card that the employee's department is informed. But the certificate is forwarded the same day to the Ministry of Social Security and that certificate are made on the Sick and Hurt List as appropriate so that at any one time the number on these lists can be determined with accuracy. She also notifies the J.S.A. when employees have been on the Sick List for three months or to the limit of their Sick Entitlement, and if they received or indicated otherwise they given to the doctors on the certificate.

Apart from those employees already mentioned, there are those connected with the Medical Centre drivers for the three ambulances, as well as cleaners for the Department.

From the study of the duties of those working in the Department it can be seen that they are essentially a close knit team with many inter-related functions. The maintenance of good relations with Naval and Civilian Hospitals, with departmental and divisional heads, with industrial employers and with the Trade Unions is only possible when each member of the team knows and performs his duties to the full.

A further responsibility is the maintenance of good relations with local General Practitioners, local Health Authorities, the National Health Service Hospitals and also with the local officers of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security. While this deals primarily with the Senior Medical Officers other members of the staff have a most important part to play.

One aspect of this responsibility concerns the employment of Registered Disabled Persons. Out of a total of 1,600 industrial employees (May 1962) 17% were registered as disabled — a total of 2 per cent. While this falls below the legal requirement of sixteen to eighteen three per cent of Registered Disabled Persons Government departments are exempt from this obligation but usually try to meet it as far as the Ministry of Defence (formerly the Admiralty) continues as in Dr Green's day to look after its own employees and there were 289 (3 per cent) on permanent restriction of duties in addition to the Registered Disabled Persons. If there are medical claims made to leave the Yard, they would probably have to register as disabled to find employment.

The position with regard to hospital treatment is, undoubtedly, less happy than when the Royal Naval Hospital was open. It has already been mentioned that the advantage of this was made and when it closed dockyard employees had to use the services of the National Health hospitals. These give an excellent service for emergency treatment when required but there is some inevitable delay in admission to hospital for less urgent treatment, resulting in a considerable loss of working time. By taking full advantage of the facilities in the Chatham X-ray and Physiotherapy Departments and using the services of the Mass-Minority Radiography Unit and Pathology Department of A.M.S. Pembroke, the staff are able to keep the needs for many hospital services to a minimum, which helps to maintain a good liaison with the hospitals enhanced by personal contacts between hospital and Medical Centre staff, and reduces the inconvenience of waiting to a minimum.

When the present Medical Centre was completed in 1962 the First Aid Centre was closed. With the good new roads that have been built in the Yard, ambulances are able to reach any part of the Yard within a very few minutes. All calls for the ambulances go via the Medical Centre where one or two ambulances are on call wherever the Centre is open. This makes it possible for a Medical Officer or Surgery Assistant (or both) to attend in the case of any accident and reduce waiting time. Surgery Assistants have the authority to proceed straight to hospital in an emergency and as such must there is seldom more than a few minutes' wait between the occurrence of an accident and the patient's arrival in hospital.

It is the latter, day the work of the Medical Department is summarized quarterly in a report to the Medical Director General (MDCG). It is not now necessary to make such complete structural plans as those mentioned in Chapter V, but a summary of expenditures in the Care of employees in the Yard and of preventive and other work undertaken by the department is made.

I have in this chapter tried to indicate the scope of this work and in the final chapter I hope to give some personal views on how this may change and to show how the history and development of the Medical Service in the Yard can be used in the future.

CHAPTER VII

THE MEDICAL SERVICES — PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE

In the 1930s and 40s, which have elapsed since the first Medical Officer, John Pearson, was appointed to Christian Dockyard, he and his successors have made a valuable contribution to the safety and welfare of the employees in the dockyard and to the efficient functioning of the Yard. With the introduction of new methods of ship-building, progress and rapid new means of management, distribution and control of labour, with the acceptance of new standards of living and working, and new responsibilities for the health and welfare of employees by both the State and employers, and with the advances in our knowledge of the hazards of the many varieties of work undertaken in a Royal Dockyard, the work of the Medical Department of the dockyard can never be said to be completed.

Christian Dockyard offers a field of research into industrial hazards which has never been fully used. When Professor Schelling of the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine and his colleagues visited the Yard to undertake some research into the hazards of dust in the Registry Office in 1955, this was the first time that advantage was taken by the Medical Department of the opportunities offered for scientific research in industrial medicine. The dockyard context of course, is regarded as a research organization for the convenience of Industrial Medical Officers, but three concepts stand which can be done. The problem of noise is one which has been causing increasing concern recently, though it is not a new problem as we have seen from Dr. Carter's letters. In 1916 the Yard was visited by Surgeon Commander R. H. A. Cole, a naval ENT specialist with a special interest in the problem of noise and measurement of noise levels in various situations in the Yard were taken. The results were somewhat disturbing and while some action was taken following Dr. Cole's recommendations, there remains much to be done in research and education. The removal of the causes of many obviously preventable ear-aches and costly practical problems and while research into the design of ear protection continued since it of 1944 much work can be done in the field of health education, both for management and employees to see that the protective measures currently available are used effectively.

Quite recently improved communications have led to the wide dissemination of medical knowledge and along with this the possibility of direct contact with experts in various branches of occupational hygiene. The above two points of research indicate the way in which advantage may be taken of this. In the early days the Dockyard Surgeon must have been in a very isolated position, but now

in is this to make full use of modern technology. Contacts with others in the field of Industrial Medicine are a great stimulus to better practice and the visits arranged for students on the Occupational Health Course at the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine in 1963 and 1968 serve as another example of this.

At the time of the changes in the management structure safety in the Yard became the responsibility of a Yard Safety Officer working on the staff of the Personnel Manager. There is a close co-operation between the Safety Division and the Medical Department but with a common objective and approach to the problem of the prevention of accidents. It felt more could be achieved if the two units in which all our departments. This would, I am sure, make it easier to launch a major campaign in the important sphere of safety. Dr. Glass noted that:

Accidents have been to notice that considerable work has been done, as yet, on how many of these are preventable. At present the Yard Safety Officer and his two assistant investigate and report on every accident in the Yard and at the end of the year he makes an annual report on Safety in the Yard, including details of some accidents, the amount of time lost, etc. This report is made more independently of the Senior Medical Officer's Quarterly Journal and there is, no link, between the two officers in the preparation of their reports in each of which the other is really interested. The danger of separating the two departments, it seems to me, is that one becomes responsible for accidents and the other for some hazards and hygiene involved of such having a poor concern for health in industry.

The Yard Safety Officer's report for 1963 shows that there were 285 reportable accidents in the Yard that year of which two caused head injuries and 40 affected the foot or toe. Exact medical details of these are not recorded in the report, which was followed by considerable co-operation between the Medical and Safety Officers to encourage the general use of safety helmets and protective boots. Both officers are greatly concerned in the supply and proper use of safety and protective clothing and their efforts could well be combined as both are needed in the education of all levels of management and employees in the Yard to take the best advantage of modern developments in this field.

The introduction of men into the building of ships was seen to create many problems for the Medical Department in the mid nineteenth century. Today a new problem faces the department. For the use of Nuclear Propulsion in warships, Chatham and other stations are being made in the Yard to enable nuclear submarines to be refuelled and refuelled there. The Nuclear Power Superintendant is in charge of this important project and a health physicist was appointed in 1965. Meetings have already taken place with local Health Authorities, the Press and others concerned, and it is hoped that by the proper use of such conferences, local doubts as to the safety of this work will have been allayed. This was an interesting lesson in health education while I was working in the Yard and is a matter which will require constant vigilance by the Medical Officers of the home for while the precautions against any accident and against the careless discharge of radioactive material are very great, the maintenance of high standards in the

future may not be easy. It can be said that much has been learned from the lessons of Dr. Quenn's day about the introduction of new methods in the Yard for the new plans have been both properly studied and skillfully published in a way which does not seem apparent in the early days of new ships.

In the last chapter the system of record-keeping and of making reports to the Medical Centre was described in some detail but it was shown how this has developed from the past. In Industrial Health Services throughout the country new schemes and ideas are constantly proposed and tried and there is a real need to keep up with modern developments in this sphere. The present system works sufficiently but little real use is made of the data collected. Valuable work in the study of morbidity could be done in the Medical Centre and if such work were to be undertaken, new systems of recording and processing the data might have to be considered. The elaborate reports of the 1930s have been discontinued and it may have been because insufficient advantage was taken of this work in the study of morbidity that today's reports contain less statistical detail. This is a field in which the Medical Department could in the future make a real contribution in the science of epidemiology.

The early surgeons at Chatham were mostly local men who were appointed, nominated or often until their retirement. Although there were some local control from London they appear to have been more or less their own masters. While this gave some continuity it may have led to some stagnation when the director's terms of office of modern Senior Medical Officers should oblige. The Department of the Medical Director General (Naval) is ultimately responsible for the direction and control of the Medical Services in the dockyards and the continuity is provided more by the Senior Surgery Assistant than by the Senior Medical Officers. This may tend to limit in the long term research within the Medical Department but this could possibly be improved by greater uniformity in the Departments in different dockyards. Much might be achieved by the appointment of a Civil Surgeon in the Department of the Medical Director General (Naval) to supervise the work and functions of the Senior Surgery Assistants rather than by the lengthening of the terms of office of the Senior Medical Officers.

It can be seen that the development of the Medical Services in the dockyard is a continuing process and a subject of almost today. The changes which occur and the methods used in their treatment have evolved with changes in the building and repair and will continue to do so. The satisfaction of the need for the prevention of illness and injury has caused a shift in the emphasis of the work of the Medical Officers. Attention to management, in machinery in social conditions, in medical ideas and even in the keeping of records have all meant continuing changes in the Medical Department. To prove its value the Medical Centre must not, however, become merely an auxiliary department of a large industrial concern but must be prepared in the future, as it has in the past, to be the instigator of change in the interests of health in industry. While these changes live in the past the development of the Medical Services in Chatham Dockyard is a part of the future, not only of the dockyard but of Medicine.

APPENDIX A

Employees in the Yard in the Eighteenth Century

Occupation	1799	1777	1793
Supervisors	148	679	294
Cookery	23	32	34
Blacksmiths		33	63
Ironers	43	43	43
House Carpenter	40	39	70
Bookbinder	19	13	23
Bookbinder Laborer		13	24
Bookbinder	13	14	24
Wagoner		37	70
Wagoner Laborer	149		
Scavenger		33	34
Scavenger	30	34	60
Laborer	127	172	236
Tenon	8	13	14
Knives	34	34	35
Blacksmith	1	1	1
Plumber	1		
Carpenter	21		
Plumber	4		
Carpenter	3		
Quartermaster	24		
Bricklayer	1		
Locksmith	2		
Spanner	25		
Blacksmith	30		
Boys	2		
TOTAL	1,287	1,331	1,498

Applicable numbers of industrial employees in the Yard 1799-1865

1799	148	1829	1,800	1839	12,000
1794	1,287	1864	4,800	1845	1,500
1794	148	1815	3,774	1850	1,500
1793	1,331	1845	3,946		
1792	1,475				
1793	1,500				

APPENDIX B

Classification of Diseases

This system was used by Medical Officers in the hospital at the end of the nineteenth century.

- 1 General Diseases Section A, eg Small Pox, Measles, Enteric Fever, Scarlet Fever, Diphtheria, Acute Rheumatism.

II	Diseases of Nervous System e.g. Rheumatism, Gout, Phlebotomy, Hemiplegia, Epilepsy, Cancer
III	Diseases of Nervous System e.g. Apoplexy, Paralysis, Epilepsy, Neuritis, Insanity, Epilepsy, Epilepsy
IV	Diseases of Circulatory System e.g. Dropsy, Cancer, Anemia, Hemiplegia, Phlebotomy, Phlebotomy
V	Diseases of Absorbent System and Excretory Glands e.g. Dropsy
VI	Diseases of Respiratory System e.g. Cough, Bronchitis, Asthma, Phlebotomy, Phlebotomy
VII	Diseases of Digestive System e.g. Cancer, Dropsy, Phlebotomy, Cough, Hemiplegia, Phlebotomy, Phlebotomy
VIII	Diseases of Urinary System e.g. Nephritis, Phlebotomy, Cystitis, Stricture, Cancer
IX	Diseases of Organs of Locomotion e.g. Lacerations, Phlebotomy, Cancer, Phlebotomy
X	Diseases of Cellular Tissues e.g. Phlebotomy, Cancer, Phlebotomy
XI	Diseases of Cellular Tissues e.g. Phlebotomy, Cancer, Phlebotomy
XII	Diseases of Cellular Tissues e.g. Phlebotomy, Cancer, Phlebotomy

Wounds and Injuries e.g. Lacerations, Phlebotomy, Cancer, Phlebotomy

This classification does not follow that in the first edition of the *Monographs of Diseases* published in 1844 nor that in the second edition published in 1844.

APPENDIX C

Statistical Abstract for 1882

Average Strength		6,384
Number of cases of	Sick List	1,663
Disease or	Ward List	409
Injury	Total	2,072
Number involved	Sick List	43
	Ward List	4
	Total	47
	Ratio per case under treatment	21.94
Number dead	Sick List	44
	Ward List	1
	Total	45
	Ratio per case under treatment	21.94
Number discharged	Sick List	1,402
and	Ward List	343
	Total	1,745
	Ratio per case under treatment	82.06
Number discharged to Hospital		44
Number of Cases Remaining		40
Average Number of Persons Daily Sick		52.18
Average Number of Days Treatment per case		17.7

In 1963 there was an average of 8511 Industrial Employees in the Yard (1402 figures include non-industrial employees). There were 3173 of these on the Sick List on any day on average and 271 on the Head List, there being 4,400 fresh cases placed on the Sick List and 964 on the Head List during the year.

Figures for the two years are dominated in different ways and not strictly comparable but the figures for the average number of persons daily out, 8416 in 1932 and 3173 in 1963 must be compared in similar ways and show a marked difference.

APPENDIX D
Summary of Absence Data 1932 and 1963

Year	Average No. on Sick List	Average No. on Head List
1932	5,946	100
1937	5,158	2240
1938	6,029	718
1939	5,156	668
1940	5,676	1715
1941	5,207	930
1952	4,184	3718
1963	3,581	3173

APPENDIX E

Medical Examinations carried out at Dockyard Dockyard according to Dockyard Regulations (D.R.s 2155, 2161, 2162, 2163)

1. Ashmen Workers — Annually including chest X-ray and Weight fresh Flu Malar test
2. Drivers (Locomotive) — Visual test every 3 years up to age of 55 and annually thereafter
3. Drivers (Motor Transport) — Visual test every 3 years up to age of 65 and annually thereafter
4. Entries — Pre-employment medical examinations for all industrial employees entering or re-entering the Yard and on entry into one of the grades in this list
5. Establishment — Examination necessary before establishment on Civil Service List
6. Personnel of Service over age 45 — Annually including chest X-ray
7. Firemen — Annually including test in use of breathing apparatus and chest X-ray
8. Foreign Service — Medical examinations chest X-ray and examination as required for Industrial and Non industrial employees sent abroad
9. Fresh Water Tank Cleaners — monthly and annual chest X-ray
10. Foundry workers — Annually including chest X-ray
11. Metal Sprayers (not lead) — Quarterly
12. P.F.P. (Kerosene) — Quarterly
13. Technicians Escape Control — Chest X-ray and examination of all these party on courses — monthly prior to submarine trials

14. *Chemical Workers* — Annually
 15. *Brown* — Full examination including chest X-ray and venous tolerance test 6 monthly and liver examinations monthly
 16. *Food Handlers* — Annual chest X-ray
 17. *Industrial X-ray workers* — Clinical, Ophthalmic and Hematological examinations
 18. *Lead Workers* — Weekly, monthly or quarterly depending on process
 19. *Shoe and Shoe Makers* — Annually, including chest X-ray
 20. *Young Persons* — Annually to age 18, including chest X-ray
- Other examinations regularly undertaken but not required by regulations*
21. *Compensation* — All claimants for industrial compensation
 22. *Extension of Sick Leave* — After being on Sick Leave for 3 months and then as required
 23. *Involving* — Full examination required before a man can be involved
 24. *Raynaud's Distal Extremities* — Annual review
 25. *Recurrent Deafness* — All from an Permanent Loss, usually, and others on expiry of time on loss
 26. *Sick Leave* — Selected workers on Sick and Hurt Leave on basis to day-weekly if there is a possibility that the work is too variable

APPENDIX F

Senior Medical Officers of H.M. Dockyard, Chatham 1925-1955

<i>Date of Appointment</i>	<i>Date of Appointment</i>
1925 J. Parsons	1944 R. Griffiths
1929 R. Wye	1945 J. Tomble
1929 J. Coony	1954 A. Whalley
1930 T. Davies	1955 J. Dudley
1931 P. Lloyd	1955 B. Sweetman
1934 J. Hammond	1959 A. Russell
1934 H. Muddersmith	1960 A. Charns
1935 J. Wynn	1964 S. Hamilton
1936 D. Rowlands	1968 G. Smith
1938 G. Johnson	1967 E. Ward
1942 W. Warden	1968 F. Rucklows
1948 P. Selzer	1972 E. Courtneymore
1950 W. Brown	1974 M. Beatty
1956 W. Green	1977 E. Phillips
1960 J. King	1977 J. Ferguson
1964 H. Pinn	1980 M. Gull
1972 J. Jack	1981 B. Souterston
1975 S. Child	1984 G. Hamilton
1979 J. Medleyjohn	1977 J. Johnson
1982 C. Shingleton	1978 L. Manswell
1983 J. Thompson	1980 F. Thompson
1985 S. Bamfield	1983 F. Day

THE PROBLEM OF MEDICAL SUPERVISION OF LEAD WORKERS*

By S. Gross Ransford

The medical supervision of lead workers is a fairly complex and highly controversial subject. For this reason I should like to make it quite clear that the views or comments I now express with regard to the present of future methods for the supervision of lead workers are entirely my own and are not necessarily the official views of either the Ministry of Labour in general or the Factory Inspectorate in particular.

In the past six years the Factory Inspectorate has investigated clinically and pathologically over 4,000 lead workers. It would be inappropriate in a paper such as this to give anything like a complete account of these investigations. It is, however, proposed to give some of the conclusions drawn from these studies with some facts and figures to justify them.

The most disturbing feature that has come to light from these investigations is that the worker can be severely poisoned by lead without either having symptoms or showing clinical signs of plumbism. Even when symptoms were present they were often so mild and of such a non-specific character that they only became significant when supported by pathological evidence of lead poisoning. For example, probably the commonest early symptoms of lead poisoning are abdominal discomfort, dyspepsia, loss of appetite and general aches and bodily pains, the latter being frequently described as rheumatism (Shannon, *loc. cit.*). In one series of 400 cases analysed it was found that 5.25 per cent of the workers complained of these symptoms but in 1.7 per cent pathological signs definitely indicated lead as a cause. In this particular series these symptoms were considered to be of a definite nature if they caused loss of working time or called for medical advice and treatment. It will be seen, therefore, that in almost 1 in every 5 workers definitely suffering from these symptoms, the cause was not due to lead poisoning. Furthermore, among these 400 cases there were 73 cases in whom pathological tests, instead of with little doubt that they were suffering from lead poisoning. Only 6 of these cases had definite symptoms; in other words there were 16 cases of subclinical poisoning in a total of 22 in whom the diagnosis could not have been made on clinical grounds alone.

Of all the clinical signs of lead poisoning, that of elevated anaemia is probably the commonest and is often the only sign present. Yet in another series of 404 male workers it was found that anaemia was reported as clinically present quite occasionally in 3.7 per cent of cases in whom the haemoglobin level exceeded 14.0 gms. per cent. Yet in cases with abnormally low haemoglobin levels it was not recognised clinically in all cases until the haemoglobin level was 10.0 gms. per cent or less. Between 15.0 gms. per cent and 11.0 gms. per cent it was reported as being

*Paper presented at the proceedings of the Lead Development Association at a meeting held at the City Hotel on 26th June, 1956.

proved to 99 per cent of cases, between 11.8 gms. per cent and 12.0 gms. per cent at a 42.2 per cent of cases and between 12.8 gms. per cent and 13.8 gms. per cent at 29 per cent of cases.

Professor Lane (1959) drew attention to the fact that head galls often are related to anaemia, a clinical sign of pernicious and this could possibly account for some of the cases erroneously reported as being anaemic. The importance of recognizing anaemia is shown in Table 1. This table shows the incidence of anaemia in male head workers over the years, under review compared with 635 male controls. It will be noted that the incidence of anaemia due to iron has remained fairly constant at between 3.5 and 6.0 per cent of workers. The years 1962 and 1964 were abnormal years for during these years the majority of institutions carried out were follow up examinations on factories which had previously been found unsatisfactory and the results during these years to some extent reflect the effectiveness of the sign system in identifying the conditions found. It will be noted that the incidence of iron occupational anaemia tends to be somewhat higher amongst head workers than amongst the controls. This was due to the high proportion of coloured workers amongst the head worker groups and in whom there is a high incidence of haemochromatosis, iron deficiency, and other forms of anaemia, whilst the control group contained no coloured workers. It should perhaps be mentioned that one third of the cases of occupational anaemia had haemoglobin levels of less than 11.8 gms. per cent whereas most of the cases of non-occupational anaemia were at this level. Moderate rather than severe anaemia was, therefore, more characteristic of head poisoning whereas in other forms of anaemia the anaemia was the first.

TABLE 1. INCIDENCE OF ANAEMIA (LOWEST HEMOGLOBIN MEASUREMENT) IN 1961, 1962, 1963, 1964

Year	Sex	Specimen examined	Anaemia only (g. Hb. per 100 g.)			Cases of occupational anaemia		Cases of non-occupational anaemia	
			10-11.8	11.8-12.0	12.0-13.8	No.	%	No.	%
1961	M	100	10 (10.0%)	41 (41.0%)	49 (49.0%)	4	4.0%	41	41.0%
	F	100	12 (12.0%)	54 (54.0%)	34 (34.0%)	4	4.0%	4	4.0%
1962	M	100	10 (10.0%)	1 (1.0%)	1 (1.0%)	4	4.0%	41	41.0%
1963	M	100	5 (5.0%)	36 (36.0%)	59 (59.0%)	1	1.0%	0	0%
1964	M	100	4 (4.0%)	1 (1.0%)	1 (1.0%)	0	0%	0	0%
1961-64	M	400	28 (7.0%)	11 (2.75%)	11 (2.75%)	10	2.5%	86	21.5%
1961-64	F	100	16 (16.0%)	1 (1.0%)	1 (1.0%)	0	0%	0	0%
1961-64	All	500	44 (8.8%)	22 (4.4%)	22 (4.4%)	14	2.8%	86	17.2%

It will be seen, therefore, that medical investigations will be inadequate unless clinical observations can be reinforced by some kind of pathological investigation. Unfortunately however the pathological investigations of these head workers showed that there was a very strong correlation between the various iron compounds employed in the maintenance of head workers, namely, the haemoglobin level of blood, the blood level and the urinary coproporphyrin and A.L.A. excretion.

This lack of correlation is, however, probably more apparent than real for the pathological findings certainly suggest that when a worker is exposed to a lead based he can pass through various stages before developing overt plumbism. Firstly there is a rise in the blood lead level. If this persists it is rapidly followed by a rise in the urinary coproporphyrins and A.L.A. excretion. Later a hypochromic anemia could be accompanied by a rise in the reticulocyte and juvenile counts. Later still, due to the secondary effects of lead, probably on the kidney or liver, there is a suppression of bone marrow activity and this is shown by a fall in the reticulocyte and juvenile counts and at this stage erythropoiesis concentrates in the marrow. In the later stages of the disease the urinary coproporphyrins substitute A.L.A. excretion and urinary lead excretion and the blood lead levels continue well up and high and the anemia marked. Apparently only one third of such cases have obvious symptoms and signs of lead poisoning. On coming to be exposed the erythropoiesis ceases in the bone and the blood level on the first or fall, later the haemoglobin level rises.

In support of these statements, Table 2 shows the relationship between the haemoglobin level and the blood lead levels found in a group of 604 main lead workers. It should be explained that all doubtful cases of anemia due to iron deficiency were where there was evidence that women other than lead restricted to women have been included from this Table. This statement shows quite clearly that all specimens with haemoglobin levels of less than 12.0 gms. per cent have blood lead levels exceeding 90 μ gms. per 100 gms. and practically all cases with haemoglobin levels of less than 12.0 gms. per cent have blood lead levels exceeding 25 μ gms. per 100 gms. It is, however, to be noted that a considerable portion of workers with normal haemoglobin levels exceeding 14.5 gms. per cent, 2.4 per cent, had blood lead levels exceeding 100 μ gms. per 100 gms.

TABLE 2. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BLOOD LEAD AND HAEMOGLOBIN LEVELS IN LEAD WORKERS
(EXCLUDING CASES OF IRON DEFICIENCY)

Ble. lead level (μ gms.)	Total Cases	Blood Lead Level (μ gms. per 100 gms.)											
		0-10		10-20		20-30		30-40		40-50		50-100	
0-10	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
10-20	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
20-30	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
30-40	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
40-50	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
50-100	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
100-200	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
200-300	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
300-400	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
400-500	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
500-600	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
600-700	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
700-800	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
800-900	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
900-1000	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
1000-1100	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
1100-1200	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
1200-1300	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
1300-1400	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
1400-1500	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
1500-1600	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
1600-1700	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
1700-1800	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
1800-1900	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
1900-2000	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
2000-2100	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
2100-2200	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
2200-2300	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
2300-2400	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
2400-2500	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
2500-2600	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
2600-2700	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
2700-2800	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
2800-2900	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
2900-3000	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
3000-3100	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
3100-3200	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
3200-3300	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
3300-3400	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
3400-3500	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
3500-3600	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
3600-3700	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
3700-3800	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
3800-3900	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
3900-4000	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
4000-4100	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
4100-4200	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
4200-4300	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
4300-4400	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
4400-4500	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
4500-4600	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
4600-4700	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
4700-4800	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
4800-4900	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
4900-5000	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
5000-5100	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
5100-5200	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
5200-5300	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
5300-5400	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
5400-5500	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
5500-5600	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
5600-5700	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
5700-5800	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
5800-5900	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
5900-6000	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
6000-6100	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
6100-6200	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
6200-6300	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
6300-6400	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
6400-6500	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
6500-6600	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
6600-6700	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
6700-6800	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
6800-6900	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
6900-7000	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
7000-7100	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
7100-7200	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
7200-7300	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
7300-7400	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
7400-7500	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
7500-7600	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
7600-7700	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
7700-7800	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
7800-7900	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
7900-8000	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
8000-8100	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
8100-8200	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
8200-8300	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
8300-8400	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
8400-8500	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
8500-8600	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
8600-8700	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
8700-8800	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
8800-8900	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
8900-9000	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
9000-9100	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
9100-9200	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
9200-9300	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
9300-9400	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
9400-9500	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
9500-9600	104	10	42	12	22	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
96													

From a practical point of view it will be seen that 93 per cent of workers with haemoglobin levels of 15.0 gms. per cent or higher have blood lead levels of less than 75 μ gms. per 100 gms. and only approximately 5.0 per cent had blood lead levels exceeding 100 μ gms. per 100 gms.

Table 3 shows the relationship between blood lead levels and urinary coproporphyrin excretion in the same group of 600 male workers. It will be seen from these tables that only 5.0 per cent of workers excreting less than 200 μ gms. per litre of coproporphyrins in the urine have blood lead levels exceeding 75 μ gms. per 100 gms. and in only 0.3 per cent did the blood lead exceed 100 μ gms. per 100 gms. In only 0 per cent excreting less than 500 μ gms. of coproporphyrins per litre of urine did the blood lead level exceed 100 μ gms. per 100 gms. It will however be noted that the correlation between blood lead levels and the coproporphyrins excretion was in some cases poorer than between blood lead levels and haemoglobin levels but it will be seen that one third of the cases excreting very high amounts of coproporphyrins (i.e. more than 1,000 μ gms/l.) had blood lead levels of less than 75 μ gms. per 100 gms. Nevertheless the very great values of a normal or low coproporphyrin excretion needs no emphasis for it will be seen that 98.3 per cent of workers with blood lead levels of less than 25 μ gms. per 100 gms. were excreting less than 200 μ gms. per litre of coproporphyrins and 95 per cent of workers with blood lead levels of less than 50 did not exceed this figure. The figure of 500 μ gms. per litre of urine for the coproporphyrins excreting test showed that this figure was never exceeded when a given value of 94 or 117 μ gms/l.

TABLE 3. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BLOOD LEAD LEVELS AND URINARY COPROPORPHYRIN EXCRETION IN 600 MALE WORKERS IN A LEAD-ACID BATTERY MANUFACTURING PLANT

Blood lead level gms. per 100 g. blood	No. of cases	No. of cases with urinary coproporphyrins					Total	
		Less than 200 μ gms./l.	200-500 μ gms./l.	500-1,000 μ gms./l.	More than 1,000 μ gms./l.	Less than 500 μ gms./l.	500-1,000 μ gms./l.	More than 1,000 μ gms./l.
Less than 25	100	98	2	0	0	100	0	0
25-50	100	95	5	0	0	100	0	0
50-75	100	92	8	0	0	100	0	0
75-100	100	85	15	0	0	100	0	0
100-150	100	70	30	0	0	100	0	0
150-200	100	55	45	0	0	100	0	0
200-250	100	40	60	0	0	100	0	0
250-300	100	30	70	0	0	100	0	0
300-350	100	20	80	0	0	100	0	0
350-400	100	15	85	0	0	100	0	0
400-450	100	10	90	0	0	100	0	0
450-500	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
500-550	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
550-600	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
600-650	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
650-700	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
700-750	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
750-800	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
800-850	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
850-900	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
900-950	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
950-1,000	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,000-1,050	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,050-1,100	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,100-1,150	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,150-1,200	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,200-1,250	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,250-1,300	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,300-1,350	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,350-1,400	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,400-1,450	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,450-1,500	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,500-1,550	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,550-1,600	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,600-1,650	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,650-1,700	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,700-1,750	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,750-1,800	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,800-1,850	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,850-1,900	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,900-1,950	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
1,950-2,000	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,000-2,050	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,050-2,100	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,100-2,150	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,150-2,200	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,200-2,250	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,250-2,300	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,300-2,350	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,350-2,400	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,400-2,450	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,450-2,500	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,500-2,550	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,550-2,600	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,600-2,650	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,650-2,700	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,700-2,750	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,750-2,800	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,800-2,850	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,850-2,900	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,900-2,950	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
2,950-3,000	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,000-3,050	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,050-3,100	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,100-3,150	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,150-3,200	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,200-3,250	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
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3,300-3,350	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,350-3,400	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,400-3,450	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,450-3,500	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,500-3,550	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,550-3,600	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,600-3,650	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,650-3,700	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,700-3,750	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,750-3,800	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,800-3,850	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,850-3,900	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
3,900-3,950	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
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4,050-4,100	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,100-4,150	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,150-4,200	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,200-4,250	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,250-4,300	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,300-4,350	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,350-4,400	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,400-4,450	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,450-4,500	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,500-4,550	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,550-4,600	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,600-4,650	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,650-4,700	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,700-4,750	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,750-4,800	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,800-4,850	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,850-4,900	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,900-4,950	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
4,950-5,000	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
5,000-5,050	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
5,050-5,100	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
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7,350-7,400	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
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7,700-7,750	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
7,750-7,800	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
7,800-7,850	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
7,850-7,900	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
7,900-7,950	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
7,950-8,000	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
8,000-8,050	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
8,050-8,100	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
8,100-8,150	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
8,150-8,200	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
8,200-8,250	100	5	95	0	0	100	0	0
8,250-8,300	100	5</						

[illegible]

or $\ln A_0/A$ is obtained. In this method, xenophophrym in the water is naturally lethal and is rapidly destroyed by daylight. Samples must therefore be collected in dark, amber glass bottles. Even when stored in such bottles at room temperature, it was found that the xenophophrym deteriorated rapidly at a rate equivalent to 32 per cent per day. It could only be preserved for any length of time by storing in the refrigerator in the dark at not more than 3°C, or by boiling glass bottles. Samples involved in such a manner gave consistent findings over a period of one week. For three reasons samples now collected in any instance from the laboratory are inadequate as legal xenophophrym containers. Secondly, it is not generally appreciated that accurate figures for the amounts of almost any substance of interest which includes lead, xenophophrym, strontium 90, etc. can only be obtained from the measurements of 24 hour samples. It is quite impractical to collect such samples from areas having variable weather. Moreover, the difficulty in placing the results obtained from the examination of spot samples, it is however, more difficult to state the value of such figures largely because of the variations in the deterioration of the same that is so greatly greater. Also of course the retention time of any substance in the water can vary from hours to hours or even months to months. Some of these difficulties can be partly overcome and various methods have been employed for doing so with a reasonable degree of success. One method is to calculate the average in relation to the amount of substance in the sample. A sample collected in a jar is a hypothetical figure for ^{90}Sr and calculates all findings accordingly. Lewis and Fife (1961) recommended that findings on spot samples of water should be referred to a ^{90}Sr of 1024. Most authorities however now agree that this figure is too high. Rappin (personal evidence) has been produced (classified) (March 1964) as a more realistic figure. Another very good reason for employing this figure is that it was found that if the ^{90}Sr of numerous specimens of water are plotted against the xenophophrym figures in grams per litre a ^{90}Sr figure of 1024 approximately gives a constant figure of 1 gram per litre. In this investigation both methods were employed and the figures that have been quoted for xenophophrym represent being all been converted either for a ^{90}Sr of 1024 or average level of 1 atom per litre.

should, however, be stated that for further the Sp/Oe of a sample deviates from the figure of 1016 the greater will be the experimental error. There is no doubt that unusually high results were obtained in samples of Sp/Oe of less than 1000 and some of the discrepancies between the coproporphyrin excretion figure and other findings were due to the difficulty of calculating accurate figures in Sp/Oe samples of urine.

The quantitative study of coproporphyrin in the urine is a tedious and long task, which requires full laboratory facilities and highly trained technicians. The same applies even more so, to the study of the urine of its precursor, namely delta A.L.A. It is somewhat tedious, therefore, that there are a number of comparatively simple techniques for screening urine which will definitely separate those specimens containing less than 200 $\mu\text{gms/L}$ from those containing higher amounts. The use of the urine were employed, (a) the technique of Woodf (1955) and (b) that of the Kilmor and Widdow (1963). No marked differences between the two tests were found. Numerous quantitative estimations showed that a negative result with either of these screening tests invariably agreed with a total assay of coproporphyrin carried out by the Kilmor and Widdow method of less than 100 $\mu\text{gms/L}$. It was also found that $++$ reactions were always separated in more than 1000 $\mu\text{gms/L}$. It is regretted that the experiments other than the use of a color blue with no large of red and $++$ reactions, between a deep purple with blue predominance. In the $++$ reactions, the other reactions, a pale green and with no blue ring at all. The major difficulty with regard to the screening test, however, even less the fact that it is extremely difficult at the first place to distinguish between $-$ and $++$ reactions. Employing this test, however, it is comparatively easy to distinguish between urine containing very large amounts of coproporphyrin and those with normal or just above normal excretion. In the case of $+$ and $++$ reactions, however, a doubt may be assumed that the excretion is not abnormally high (See Table 1; Kilmor and Widdow (1963) draw attention to this problem with screening tests and has shown that it could be overcome to some extent without recourse to full quantitative estimations, for if various dilutions of the sample were made with distilled water a very close approximation could be made of the quantity of coproporphyrin in the sample, if the screening test was applied to such diluted samples. From a practical point of view, however, it should only be necessary to treat three specimens, giving $+$, $-$ or $++$ reactions in this manner.

The biggest source of error in relation to both qualitative assays and screening tests for coproporphyrin was the fact that a proportion of samples received were quite unsuitable for testing because they were too dilute. Specimens with Sp/Oe of less than 1000 cannot be analysed correctly no matter what method is employed in the various procedures as such cases would be in respect another specimen.

The Precursor Count

The method employed was that of Professor Lane (1949). The screening test described fully that Professor Lane has not already described and in fact the results confirmed. If confirmation is required everything that Professor Lane has already stated.

Some additional observations concern the relationship between urinary coproporphyrin excretion, haemoglobin levels and the percentage of cases that, however, became available and the very low incidence. Fig. 3, for example, shows the distribution curve of the coproporphyrin excretion and the percentage cases in relation to haemoglobin levels amongst 365 male food workers. It should be explained, however, that the percentage figures here refer only to the total life cases and medium potentials. In most of the cases the low percentage count included and sometimes exceeded that of the severe and medium cases. It was likewise found that the severe and medium cases correlated better with the other pathological findings (i.e. the total group which in some cases could be misleading). Later (1949) drew attention to the difference between the significance of the severe and low granulocytosis.

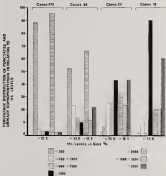


Fig. 3a. Coproporphyrin μ g/l/24 hr.

Percentage of iron deficiency in HbC.

of the supplied cells in platinum. It will be seen from Fig. 1 that in the group with haematoglobin levels of 13.0 gms. per cent and above 96 per cent had normal or low, pushtoie counts, only 63 per cent had a low normal erythrocytopenia curve. At the other end of the scale, however, that is to say in the most anemic group, although 95 per cent had very high erythrocytopenia curves, only 54 per cent had a high pushtoie count. Furthermore, no one in this group had a normal erythrocytopenia curve, although in 12 per cent the erythrocytopenia response was not grossly abnormal. Between the two groups, that is to say the haematoglobin levels of less than 12.0 gms. per cent but more than 10.0 gms. per cent, there were good correlations between high pushtoie counts and high erythrocytopenia curves.

From a practical point of view, therefore, it is important to note that severe anemia can occur in lead poisoning when the pushtoie count is low or normal. This phenomenon was noted by Lane who indicated it to some secondary effect of lead on the haemopoiesis and it is suggested here that it may be due to the effect of lead either on the kidney or liver or both. This is certainly affects haematopoiesis as indicated by the fact that there is also a reduced or normal reticulocyte count. The very fact that the pushtoie count is low in the presence of anemia and a raised blood lead level is, therefore, a valuable sign of severe poisoning and indicates that urgent action is required for both the treatment of the man and for ameliorating his working conditions.

The characteristics of the pushtoie count too can be extremely valuable some times in distinguishing between early cases of lead exposure and those cases in covering with past exposure. This fact was pointed out by Lane (1949).

It must be clear from these pathological findings that no single pathological test alone can give any idea of accurate estimate as to a lead worker's condition. Only by combining all the pathological evidence available can the evidence be properly assessed. It must, however, be obvious that it would be impractical to subject all lead workers to a comprehensive pathological investigation. Furthermore, it would be highly undesirable for, as Professor Lane (1949) points out, routine investigations among factory workers are not likely to be regarded with favour over other methods of control not available. The estimation of blood lead, for example, calls for an analytical procedure of the highest order and even a specially constructed lead free laboratory. Quantitative assays of erythrocytopenia and A.L.A. in urine are also not short-cut procedures requiring both laboratory facilities and highly trained technical personnel. Even the pushtoie count requires great experience and the services of a technician fully qualified in haematological techniques if reliable results are to be obtained. The ideal method therefore for application in the medical supervision of lead workers should be relatively simple and therefore not costly and one that could be applied frequently without causing the worker any discomfort or inconvenience. At present there are only two tests available which will in any way meet the above criteria, namely the estimation of Hb level in peripheral blood samples, and a qualitative screening test for erythrocytopenia in the urine. There are, however, objections that can be raised against haematoglobin estimations. In the first place the worker has to submit to the use of a finger being pricked and the procedure, as well as causing some discomfort

must carry some degree of risk, even though small. Secondly it is for consideration whether variations of haematocrits from peripheral blood samples can have an acceptable degree of accuracy for a test. It must be considered that physiological conditions alone can cause a difference of 0.02 gms. per cent between such findings. The collection of blood samples also presents practical difficulties. Unless there is a free flow of blood the squeezing of the ear or finger can cause such a degree of haemo-dilution that the results will be spuriously low and if any kind of tourniquet is applied to the finger to cause capillary engorgement the result will be spuriously high. Again the measurement of very small quantities of blood accurately calls for a high degree of experience and training in the technique of using a haemocytometer pipette. Because of this latter difficulty the Phillips *et al.* (1955) Copper Sulphate method was recommended since in this method no volumetric measurement of blood is required. Unfortunately, however, this method requires rather a lot of blood and this fact makes the accurate collection of samples by this method rather difficult. Recently a method of collecting 0.2 ml. of blood very accurately and automatically has been developed by Laves and Bergman (1955). It requires little or no skill or experience. With this method of collecting samples almost any of the required techniques for measuring haematocrits can be applied.

It is estimated, however, that any technique employed for measuring haematocrits should conform with the recommendations of the International Committee for Standardization in Haematology (1955). One essential recommendation of this Committee in connection with haematocrit measurements is that all such measurements must be made against a specified International Haematocrit Standard. A standard which conforms to the International Specifications for use with the Cuvette-mechanocritometer technique is now in commercial production and can be purchased and, therefore, this technique becomes the method of choice. Using this technique and this method of collecting samples, with reasonable care a should be possible to measure with a sufficient degree of accuracy all those workers with Hb. levels of less than 15.0 gms. per cent. This method of measuring only mismeasures 47 per cent of workers with blood lead levels exceeding 150 μ gms. per cent and only 45 per cent in those with blood lead levels exceeding 15 μ gms. per 100 gms. This blood test, however, if combined with a urinary coproporphyrin or A.L.A. excretion test should provide sufficient information for all practical purposes.

Unfortunately there is no simple screening test at present which can be applied for measuring the excretion of delta A.L.A. in the urine which is to be required since A.L.A. is so much more stable than coproporphyrin in urine. A measurement of the haematocrit and a coproporphyrin screening test are, therefore, best to be recommended as a means of additional routine measures for the continuous medical supervision of lead workers. It would, however, be preferable if routine blood measurements of any kind could be effected and the blood circulation lead activity in urine for those cases in which the screening test has indicated that further investigations are desirable. Investigations for this reason should be undertaken with two objects in view: (a) to develop a simple method for the quantitative assay of A.L.A. in the urine and (b) for screening

samples for a means of lead, for it should be explained here that up to now the supervision of lead has been less practical than other technological problems and difficulties than that of interesting lead in blood. This is largely because in urine its concentration is 4 to 10 times less than it is in blood.

The first duty of H.M. Factory Inspectorate is to determine whether a health hazard exists, as degree and whether it is localized or generalized. If generalized as cause of localized, is it due to some deficiency or fault over which the worker has no control or is it due to some personal defect in the worker himself? To make these determinations two methods are employed by H.M. Factory Inspectorate, M.O.L., namely, (a) by atmospheric monitoring and (b) by monitoring the health of the working population in the factory. As far as lead problems are concerned, atmospheric monitoring alone has many limitations. In the first place, the information obtained concerning ambient lead in the atmosphere can only apply to the period during which the air samples were collected. Secondly it is assumed that all cases of lead poisoning that may arise will be the result of absorption of lead via the respiratory tract during the working hours, an assumption by no means always true. Lastly, it will largely tend to detect those workers who because of personal defects e.g. the soil factor, the psychosocial, the chronic alcoholism and the nervous who because of general lack of hygiene principles and cleanliness in their methods of working or just general complacency place themselves in considerably more risk of being poisoned than other workers. In any case no diagnostic decision with regard to the environment can ever be made until the health of the population exposed has been determined.

The application of new tests based on what is now known of the pathological effects of lead has raised medical monitoring of the health of lead workers to a high degree of precision. There is little doubt now that cases of subclinical poisoning can be detected by such methods and the amount of lead absorbed by workers accurately measured. In consequence, the degree of exposure and the health hazard can as a result of medical monitoring be accurately assessed and its source then pinpointed.

It must not be thought, however, that there is now no place for atmospheric monitoring. Quite the reverse. For many factories especially small factories employ workers on a number of different tasks. In these cases it is often necessary to employ atmospheric monitoring to determine which of the tasks is responsible for the condition of such a worker found to be seriously affected by lead. Atmospheric monitoring too is very necessary once a serious lead hazard has been localized in order to determine whether the steps taken to ameliorate the effect have been successful. Medical monitoring has a very expensive and time absorbing. Highly qualified and experienced professional personnel demanding high salaries such as physicians and pathologists are necessary. Highly skilled technicians and specially equipped laboratories are also essential and all are in short supply. The amount of complete medical monitoring that can be undertaken well, therefore always be limited. For the routine control of any lead hazard therefore it is assumed that the simplest and most economic methods for both monitoring the environment and the health of the workers should be developed.

It is hoped that the investigations outlined in this paper will help those whose responsibility it is to determine what the future policy should be.

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PSYCHIATRIC PARTICIPATION

By Geoffrey Wallis

Confronted with a scapegoat, inadequate person, soldier, sexual deviant or social outcast, a psychiatrist, particularly if he is in the Service, faces a dilemma, of whether to accept or reject the patient. Once he has made this chosen decision, an unhelpful psychiatrist proceeds on clinical lines, whereas a rejected character the person as having a mind in social problems outside the clinical orbit.

The scapegoat says: This patient has a headache which I must treat, whereas the doctor affirms: This man has a headache because he is unhappy at his city. He must try harder to adjust himself and his problem is not mine.

Serious consideration of this obviously very great and important difficulty seems to have been limited to discussions, admittedly frequent, largely and eloquently, about whether particular diagnoses should, such as psychopaths, and alcoholism, should qualify for admission of 75 in the Pathology Commission with its corresponding application of sentencing. These arguments are often rather meaningless because the disorder of almost every patient were under consideration can be expressed as either a personality defect or a weakness, so that the psychiatrist can without limits choose the diagnosis which best fits the demands of the Service in which the patient belongs for the disposal he thinks most appropriate. This important, however limited part the cast before the horse, is a not altogether unreasonable violation of the acceptance-rejection equation.

The notion of scapegoating, if one may use the word in the technical sense, is relatively new. Around 1880 the public conscience of England and Wales was moved by the brutal treatment of the curiately of King George III (Henderson and Gulliver 1956). In 1930 the Mental Treatment Act sanctioned the admission to mental hospitals of patients voluntarily, that is, without their being certified insane. Curran and Gershwin (1949) warned against the too common assumption that all wartime psychiatric patients should be regarded as criminals or psychopaths. Now the Mental Health Act of 1959 not only permitted for the greatest possible use of informal treatment but also recognizes psychopathy as one of four classes of mental disorder. While for the treatment of alcoholism are being created all over England and very many sexual deviants are being treated by behaviour therapy and other methods. For Service alcoholics, Edwards (1956) and McGee (1960) advocated treatment and retention rather than swapping.

The history of rejection is much longer. Society in the middle ages burnt the mentally ill as witches and in the last century, despite King George III and Bury after influence towards tolerance, locked them behind masonry walls and gates. Bates (1937) demanded the 'purveyor' view of mental illness according to which there was nothing wrong with the patient and all he needed to do was to pull himself together and to go about his business. Forster (1943) said that the proposition that alcoholism was a disease was being the barren quest of cure is one disease psychiatrist since an unqualified scapegoat would permit for alcoholics

to evade the military consequences of his self-indulgence. Jones (1961) maintains that mental illness is a myth, a system using the language of helplessness (thereby concealing and diverting the goals of dominance).

Carl Gustav Jung (1947) says positively that doctors are the new clergy. An astrologer could not give the patient to support his belief that he should transmit what patients as a social problem such as chronic without having such chronic events like symptoms and signs of depression whereas a physician will do just the opposite: arguing that because a depressed person has been alone without him he should not be taken into psychiatric care. 'Whoever here he adopts the psychiatrist might quote the Cardinal to excuse his neglecting the needs of Curran and Gwynne (1948) that the question of whether inside the doctor's presence and so he coming a moral as well as a clinical arbiter.

There are at least three historical variants on this contemporary theme and Mays and Wrenner (1967) have noted a new resurgence now. Their policy in Singapore in 1945 was to restrict medical education in the UK to psychiatric patients suffering from major or psychotic illness and they claim that as a result 'in practice no deliberate error'. Of 128 Naval and Royal Marine personnel whom they saw in that year, 20 were medically evacuated to the UK, 81 were discharged from the Service through regular channels for illness which had led to psychiatric referral and another 8 were given psychiatric treatment in the UK before the end of 1945. Among the remaining 85 49 were serving at the end of 1945 and had had no direct psychiatric treatment. However, in the authors' firm knowledge from reliable information and personal experience, many of these 81 patients straggled forward or positively showed that way better than as were recruited because they stimulated their resources and several others caused great concern to their officers and damage to the morale of their ship companies.

Rossini Lee (1967) from his experience as a supervisor of small ships based on Singapore at the time, reports that when psychiatric referral ended in psychiatric visits to the ship both his own full and sympathetic attention of the patient and his careful reassurance, merely a non-specific diagnosis or a blind assumption that nothing was wrong, the patient's prospects of becoming efficient or stable were greatly. In Rossini Lee's opinion these outright responses engendered lack of confidence in the psychiatric services.

The Inter-Services Psychiatric Committee considered a report by Murray (1967) on the difficulties caused by psychiatric patients in small ships at the Middle East when 'The unexpected appearance of a problem sailor on board a small defenceless ship'.

Such are some of the consequences of two main rejection. Apparently they not only cause considerable hardship to the patient and the medical and administrative staffs of the Service but also bring psychiatry into disrepute.

Holliday (1966) showed very clearly that Naval medicine has never flourished without collaboration from the civilian main stream of the profession. Thus one may regard Service psychiatry to flourish unless it follows the modern evolution toward into a more accepting attitude.

A psychiatrist cannot completely accept unreservedly referred to him or subject to

policy of mutual participation, but total rejection does no good except to give the burden of the psychiatric label. For these patients where the correct diagnosis cannot surely be put, surely the psychiatrist should be prepared to use his knowledge of the patient and his expertise in human relationships in helping the patient in one hand and the personnel in his or her service and family environment on the other, to adapt themselves to each other. For this therapeutic process good communication is essential (Hamer, 1967) and because the psychiatrist may be placed for time and the patients and others concerned in his welfare quickly on the scene, success often depends on the clarity and adequacy of psychiatric reporting.

The ideal remedy for these patients appears to be the Human Problems Conference which McGinn (1963) described after work in the United States of America and Canadian units in the British Army of the Rhine. At the conference at first as possible of the interested parties pool their skilled resources, opinions, and recommendations. They might include the step or unit medical officer, chaplain, education and welfare officers, dental and other services as administrative officers, prison representatives and psychiatrists. Unfortunately the organizing and proceedings of such a meeting entail many difficulties and uncertainties and the fact being that different members have to stand for every person on the agenda, and even an agenda could hardly regard these great individuals as concerned in the treatment of an emotionally inadequate father, mother or spouse or his wife or child.

However, on the principles of the Human Problems Conference of consensus, team spirit, effort and understanding psychiatry would function at a higher and more humanitarian level to promote mental health in members of the services and their families. Application of these methods (trained and kindly adopted in most individual consultations) will exchange the folly and misery of total rejection and the failure of 'service psychiatrists to participate fully in human problems.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This subject is discussed here referred to P. Goss, C.R. Goss, M.D. M.C. P.F.C.I. F.R.A.C.S. (A.C.C.S.) for permission to publish in English.

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A NOTE ON FOOT AND MOUTH DISEASE

(Epizootic Aphtha)

By John David Stewart

Foot and mouth disease is a highly contagious condition caused by a filterable virus occurring in domestic animals, mainly pigs — but sheep and goats are not often affected. The disease can be transmitted in many (Harrison, Davis and Hojager 1957).

The disease is so infectious that it can be spread by means of infected fodder or litter by man and bones of infected animals milk from infected cows as carried from infected to live passages by the shoes of farmers or labourers. The list of domestic viruses of birds, fur of dogs and cats.

SURVIVAL TIME OF VIRUS	
Survived on	Survival Time — Weeks
Cow dung	4
Pine	7
Hay	11
Wool	28
Survival Time — Weeks	
Infected Cattle	2

In the case of cattle and pigs slaughtered in the early stages of the disease and kept under ordinary cold storage conditions, the virus remains active for forty days in blood and seventy six days in bone marrow. Following dry salting or brine soaking the virus can be recovered from bone marrow after forty-two days.

The Governmental Committee of 1934/35 was convinced that the occasional outbreaks of foot and mouth disease amongst pigs in this country were due to their being fed upon kitchen refuse from hotels and restaurants coming from infected imported sources.

Pathological Changes

Illness in swine lasts usually after 1-3 days of fever. The principal lesions of which are:

- (a) Swellings of the lips, mouth, tongue and palate and nasal region (Ozenzang).
- (b) Eruption the digits, base of upper incisors, digits and around hooves and heels of feet.
- (c) Tissue and skin of udder and teats (in cows).

The affected part is first red and swollen and later the vesicle which contains a quantity of colourless fluid appears. It is usually about an inch in diameter

and soon blisters, leaving a moist red sore with the removal of the whitened crusts found round the edges. The sore when occurring in the mouth quickly heals and leaves a hard white scar. The sores on the feet may be found to be in a suppurative condition which in severe cases, affects tendons and joints.

In the worst type the mucous membrane of the stomach and small intestine is affected and the animal suffers from diarrhoea and prostration, which in the later stages of the syndrome of capripneumonia passes. Severe cases usually end fatally. In affected calves, peritonitis is the principal symptom.

Differential diagnosis

- (1) Impetiginous dermatomycosis
- (2) Traumatic blisters

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Reviews

Language and Sex. By Alexander McKay. Pp. 344. London: George Allen and Unwin.

The analysis of female speech from the psychological as against purely sociological point of view is a much-needed extension of the growing interest in this field and. Perhaps the book contains a rich and very welcome, although.

Actually, many techniques are being widely applied to sociological studies and, in the case of sex, the results are being used to make pressing needs in developing the best education which children in this sex category.

But as there are so many theories as to what women in this sphere should develop, although, possibly, it is a complex, polyphonic and its content, limited as it is, might be a satisfyingly complex style full of abstract reasoning and good common sense. As well as being an expert on sex, the author is established as a scientific writer. The present book follows the writing of this subject and, although, in the course of a short work, covers all the subjects that require study for a woman who is to be able to function in the sex and in the sex sphere, the language and the development. The book is well illustrated and contains many of the only good illustrations which may be made in the study of the subject in this sex category on the work of the present author and local experience.

I have thoroughly enjoyed reading this book and made it a very useful.

S.M.

Recent Advances in Clinical Neurophysiology. Edited by L. Rosen. Pp. vi + 304. International Symp. (Geneva) 1965. Butterworths, London.

This volume contains the proceedings of the 1st International Congress of Neurophysiology, which was held in Geneva in 1965. The volume is divided into two parts: the first part contains the proceedings of the 1st International Congress of Neurophysiology, which was held in Geneva in 1965. The second part contains the proceedings of the 2nd International Congress of Neurophysiology, which was held in Geneva in 1965. The volume is a valuable contribution to the field of clinical neurophysiology.

The papers in this volume are the result of the 1st and 2nd International Congresses of Neurophysiology, which were held in Geneva in 1965. The volume is a valuable contribution to the field of clinical neurophysiology. The papers in this volume are the result of the 1st and 2nd International Congresses of Neurophysiology, which were held in Geneva in 1965. The volume is a valuable contribution to the field of clinical neurophysiology.

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J.M.

Neurophysiology of the Human Brain. Edited by L. Rosen. Pp. vi + 304. International Symp. (Geneva) 1965. Butterworths, London.

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Notes of the Western

IMPROVEMENTS AT ROYAL NAVAL HOSPITAL, MALTA

On 10th July, 1946 the Operating Theatre and X-ray Departments at the Royal Naval Hospital, Malta, were completely developed by enemy action. No attempt was made at the conclusion of the war to restore these buildings and the Operating Theatre was provided as ward annex after certain modifications. After a lapse of twenty years these facilities became available and the construction of an up-to-date Operating Theatre complex was begun in July 1965. The internal portion of the new buildings was prepared while the Operating Theatre remained undisturbed but after six months of building it was necessary to encroach on the service and the X-ray Department Unit was transferred to existing facilities at the R.A.F. Air Station at Luqa. By September 1967 the buildings at Bighi were completed and the new Theatre Block was opened on the 28th September by Mr. D. P. Gard with of the Medical Officer in Charge.



Newly finished ward (Operating Theatre)



Group in formation, waiting at the Theatre Royal, Singapore, 1966.

Throughout its existence the Hospital has suffered from difficulties with internal traffic, there being only one entrance and exit gate for all vehicles which caused considerable obstruction and delay. With a view to rectifying this difficulty a new road was made through the Old Hospital Cemetery and in order to legitimize this a short Service of Dedication was performed by the Bishop of Ceylon on the 12th November 1966. This work was presided over with the collaboration of the remains and there is burial at R.N. Cemetery, San Remo. The road has been completed and the borders are beautiful, but one with drains. Incoming traffic now proceeds through the Hospital Main Gate as before but uses the new road to emerge into the village of Kelkara just above Kumbala Creek.

CHIEF NURSE

Surgeon Major Admiral (Rtd) Edward Lloyd RITCHIE, CBE, MBE (Retired) FDSR (Retired) died on Friday, 25th January, 1966 at St. Joseph's Naval Hospital, Singapore at the age of 84. Born at Bedford in the February, 1881, RITCHIE qualified as a dental surgeon in Glasgow, Gt. Brit. and the Royal Naval Hospital in 1907. He held senior dental posts at the R.N.H. from 1914 until 1941. March 1941 following his appointment as Director of Pathology and from 1941-1945 was appointed as one of the few civilian dental surgeons who were permitted to attend patients in the hospitals of the Royal Navy, as a result of a special wartime posting. In the Royal Naval Hospital at Haslemere in August 1944 he was promoted and in 1945 transferred to the R.N.H. at Portsmouth. Following his return to

As a somewhat experienced applicant, I would be able to do all the given work, above all transportation. I have a great capacity that I can do all the given things and what I want to do is also possible. In the end, I will do everything for the best of my company and for the best of my country.

Supersymmetry (SUSY) is a theoretical framework that extends the Standard Model of particle physics by introducing a new symmetry between bosons and fermions. This symmetry predicts the existence of superpartners for each known particle, which could help solve several outstanding problems in physics, such as the hierarchy problem and the unification of the fundamental forces.

© 2004 Blackwell Publishing Ltd, *Journal of Internal Medicine* 255: 103–110

(continued) — *See also* **100-101** **102** **103** **104** **105** **106** **107** **108** **109** **110** **111** **112** **113** **114** **115** **116** **117** **118** **119** **120** **121** **122** **123** **124** **125** **126** **127** **128** **129** **130** **131** **132** **133** **134** **135** **136** **137** **138** **139** **140** **141** **142** **143** **144** **145** **146** **147** **148** **149** **150** **151** **152** **153** **154** **155** **156** **157** **158** **159** **160** **161** **162** **163** **164** **165** **166** **167** **168** **169** **170** **171** **172** **173** **174** **175** **176** **177** **178** **179** **180** **181** **182** **183** **184** **185** **186** **187** **188** **189** **190** **191** **192** **193** **194** **195** **196** **197** **198** **199** **200** **201** **202** **203** **204** **205** **206** **207** **208** **209** **210** **211** **212** **213** **214** **215** **216** **217** **218** **219** **220** **221** **222** **223** **224** **225** **226** **227** **228** **229** **230** **231** **232** **233** **234** **235** **236** **237** **238** **239** **240** **241** **242** **243** **244** **245** **246** **247** **248** **249** **250** **251** **252** **253** **254** **255** **256** **257** **258** **259** **260** **261** **262** **263** **264** **265** **266** **267** **268** **269** **270** **271** **272** **273** **274** **275** **276** **277** **278** **279** **280** **281** **282** **283** **284** **285** **286** **287** **288** **289** **290** **291** **292** **293** **294** **295** **296** **297** **298** **299** **300** **301** **302** **303** **304** **305** **306** **307** **308** **309** **310** **311** **312** **313** **314** **315** **316** **317** **318** **319** **320** **321** **322** **323** **324** **325** **326** **327** **328** **329** **330** **331** **332** **333** **334** **335** **336** **337** **338** **339** **340** **341** **342** **343** **344** **345** **346** **347** **348** **349** **350** **351** **352** **353** **354** **355** **356** **357** **358** **359** **360** **361** **362** **363** **364** **365** **366** **367** **368** **369** **370** **371** **372** **373** **374** **375** **376** **377** **378** **379** **380** **381** **382** **383** **384** **385** **386** **387** **388** **389** **390** **391** **392** **393** **394** **395** **396** **397** **398** **399** **400** **401** **402** **403** **404** **405** **406** **407** **408** **409** **410** **411** **412** **413** **414** **415** **416** **417** **418** **419** **420** **421** **422** **423** **424** **425** **426** **427** **428** **429** **430** **431** **432** **433** **434** **435** **436** **437** **438** **439** **440** **441** **442** **443** **444** **445** **446** **447** **448** **449** **450** **451** **452** **453** **454** **455** **456** **457** **458** **459** **460** **461** **462** **463** **464** **465** **466** **467** **468** **469** **470** **471** **472** **473** **474** **475** **476** **477** **478** **479** **480** **481** **482** **483** **484** **485** **486** **487** **488** **489** **490** **491** **492** **493** **494** **495** **496** **497** **498** **499** **500** **501** **502** **503** **504** **505** **506** **507** **508** **509** **510** **511** **512** **513** **514** **515** **516** **517** **518** **519** **520** **521** **522** **523** **524** **525** **526** **527** **528** **529** **530** **531** **532** **533** **534** **535** **536** **537** **538** **539** **540** **541** **542** **543** **544** **545** **546** **547** **548** **549** **550** **551** **552** **553**

[illegible]

Received the prize of the Society of Chemical Industry 1966
 Research Committee: J. H. Jones, M.B. BSc 1966, D.Phil. 1968

2-Substituted-5-alkoxy-2-thienyl-1,3,4-oxadiazole	Yield (%)	^1H NMR (CDCl_3)	^{13}C NMR (CDCl_3)	IR (KBr)	MS (m/z)	HRMS (m/z)
1a: 2-methoxy-5-(2-methylphenyl)-2-thienyl-1,3,4-oxadiazole	70	δ 7.56 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 7.46 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 7.36 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 7.26 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 7.16 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 7.06 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 6.96 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 6.86 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 6.76 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 6.66 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 6.56 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 6.46 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 6.36 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 6.26 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 6.16 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 6.06 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 5.96 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 5.86 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 5.76 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 5.66 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 5.56 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 5.46 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 5.36 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 5.26 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 5.16 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 5.06 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 4.96 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 4.86 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 4.76 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 4.66 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 4.56 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 4.46 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 4.36 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 4.26 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 4.16 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 4.06 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 3.96 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 3.86 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 3.76 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 3.66 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 3.56 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 3.46 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 3.36 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 3.26 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 3.16 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 3.06 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 2.96 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 2.86 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 2.76 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 2.66 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 2.56 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 2.46 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 2.36 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 2.26 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 2.16 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 2.06 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 1.96 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 1.86 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 1.76 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 1.66 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 1.56 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 1.46 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 1.36 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 1.26 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 1.16 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 1.06 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 0.96 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 0.86 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 0.76 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 0.66 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 0.56 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 0.46 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 0.36 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 0.26 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 0.16 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 0.06 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz), 0.00 (d, 1H, $J = 8.0$ Hz)	155.1, 154.2, 153.3, 152.4, 151.5, 150.6, 149.7, 148.8, 147.9, 147.0, 146.1, 145.2, 144.3, 143.4, 142.5, 141.6, 140.7, 139.8, 138.9, 138.0, 137.1, 136.2, 135.3, 134.4, 133.5, 132.6, 131.7, 130.8, 129.9, 129.0, 128.1, 127.2, 126.3, 125.4, 124.5, 123.6, 122.7, 121.8, 120.9, 120.0, 119.1, 118.2, 117.3, 116.4, 115.5, 114.6, 113.7, 112.8, 111.9, 111.0, 110.1, 109.2, 108.3, 107.4, 106.5, 105.6, 104.7, 103.8, 102.9, 102.0, 101.1, 100.2, 99.3, 98.4, 97.5, 96.6, 95.7, 94.8, 93.9, 93.0, 92.1, 91.2, 90.3, 89.4, 88.5, 87.6, 86.7, 85.8, 84.9, 84.0, 83.1, 82.2, 81.3, 80.4, 79.5, 78.6, 77.7, 76.8, 75.9, 75.0, 74.1, 73.2, 72.3, 71.4, 70.5, 69.6, 68.7, 67.8, 66.9, 66.0, 65.1, 64.2, 63.3, 62.4, 61.5, 60.6, 59.7, 58.8, 57.9, 57.0, 56.1, 55.2, 54.3, 53.4, 52.5, 51.6, 50.7, 49.8, 48.9, 48.0, 47.1, 46.2, 45.3, 44.4, 43.5, 42.6, 41.7, 40.8, 39.9, 39.0, 38.1, 37.2, 36.3, 35.4, 34.5, 33.6, 32.7, 31.8, 30.9, 30.0, 29.1, 28.2, 27.3, 26.4, 25.5, 24.6, 23.7, 22.8, 21.9, 21.0, 20.1, 19.2, 18.3, 17.4, 16.5, 15.6, 14.7, 13.8, 12.9, 12.0, 11.1, 10.2, 9.3, 8.4, 7.5, 6.6, 5.7, 4.8, 3.9, 3.0, 2.1, 1.2, 0.3, 0.0	1600, 1500, 1450, 1400, 1350, 1300, 1250, 1200, 1150, 1100, 1050, 1000, 950, 900, 850, 800, 750, 700, 650, 600, 550, 500, 450, 400, 350, 300, 250, 200, 150, 100, 50, 0	254.1, 253.1, 252.1, 251.1, 250.1, 249.1, 248.1, 247.1, 246.1, 245.1, 244.1, 243.1, 242.1, 241.1, 240.1, 239.1, 238.1, 237.1, 236.1, 235.1, 234.1, 233.1, 232.1, 231.1, 230.1, 229.1, 228.1, 227.1, 226.1, 225.1, 224.1, 223.1, 222.1, 221.1, 220.1, 219.1, 218.1, 217.1, 216.1, 215.1, 214.1, 213.1, 212.1, 211.1, 210.1, 209.1, 208.1, 207.1, 206.1, 205.1, 204.1, 203.1, 202.1, 201.1, 200.1, 199.1, 198.1, 197.1, 196.1, 195.1, 194.1, 193.1, 192.1, 191.1, 190.1, 189.1, 188.1, 187.1, 186.1, 185.1, 184.1, 183.1, 182.1, 181.1, 180.1, 179.1, 178.1, 177.1, 176.1, 175.1, 174.1, 173.1, 172.1, 171.1, 170.1, 169.1, 168.1, 167.1, 166.1, 165.1, 164.1, 163.1, 162.1, 161.1, 160.1, 159.1,	

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CONTENTS 129
ARTICLES

Hyperbaric Oxygen Therapy: Review of the Present Position and Experiments in the Management of Naval Personnel. By SENIOR COMMANDER A. R. THORP, M.C., M.D.(Eng), M.R.C. and SENIOR CAPTAIN JOHN WATT, M.C., M.D.(Eng), M.D. Professor of Naval Surgery 139

A Case of Workman's Tender. By SENIOR CAPTAIN B. VICTOR JONES, M.C., M.D.(Eng), M.D., SENIOR LIEUTENANT COMMANDER J. M. F. HARRIS, M.C., M.C., M.D. and SENIOR LIEUTENANT J. R. ROBERTSON, M.C., M.D. 143

Yersin-Likeles Reflex in Children. By SENIOR COMMANDER F. A. F. MACLEOD, M.C., M.D. 145

Fluorid Malignancies Following the Inhibition of Adrenals in Relation to Malignant Change. By DR. N. LLOYD RUSSELL, M.D., M.D. (Cantab) Physician to Diseases of the Chest to the Royal Navy 147

Clinical Experience with Tolid. By SENIOR CAPTAIN R. T. MUIR, M.C., M.D., M.D. and SENIOR COMMANDER W. B. JONES, M.C., M.D., M.D. and SENIOR COMMANDER D. R. B. MILES, M.C., M.D. and M.D. 149

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Psychiatric Alterations. By SENIOR COMMANDER D. H. MARLEY, M.C., M.D., M.D., M.D. and SENIOR LIEUTENANT COLONEL L. F. J. WYNNANT, M.C., M.D., M.D. 151

Reply to the above. SENIOR CAPTAIN C. G. WOOD, M.C., M.D., M.D., M.D. 152

THE ROYAL NAVY MEDICAL CLUB DINNER 1967 157
REVIEWS 162

NEWS OF THE SERVICE

Ordinaries, Honours and Awards. Queen's Birthday Honours, 1967
Higher Qualifications, Promotions. Transferred to Permanent List
New Entries. Retirement. Termination of Commission. Retires
Wardenships, Queen Alexandra's Royal Naval Nursing Service
Royal Naval Reserve. Civilian Appointments of Retired R.N. Medical Officers 163

NOTES 171

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Editorial

BLACKWATER FEVER

Blackwater fever is a condition rarely met today though during the war, particularly with the R.A.F. in Western and Central Africa, became very familiar with this condition and learnt that the initial suspicion factor in treatment was to advise from moving the patient during the acute stage, particularly in areas where comfortable transportation was rarely available. As a result of this, Blackwater Fever Teams, including a medical officer and several orderlies, were established which would be transported by aircraft on river boat to meet cases on the spot. Early blood transfusion and complete rest were essential.

Although the diagnosis in the case reported is probably right, that does not follow from the history given. The acute picture is not characteristic and the whole sequence of events could have been caused by a severe attack of malignant typhus malaria. The report, however, is very welcome as an indication of the need for medical officers to remember that tropical medicine is still an important requirement in their training.

HYPERBARIC OXYGEN THERAPY

It is also appropriate that a comprehensive review of the history and present thoughts on hyperbaric oxygen therapy should be published. There has been a great deal of increased interest in this technique which is based on simple physiological principles and its application in medicine can only be matched by controlled investigation. The authors describe its 'early' use and its popularity over recent years. It is hoped that it is now coming into a respected place in medical treatment from which it can prove when a true demand is established. The extensive bibliography which is included with this paper will be of very great benefit to those concerned in this and allied subjects. The authors draw attention to the fire risk resulting from high pressure oxygen and rightly emphasize the essential precautions necessary to eliminate this.

The Naval Medical Service has played a very active part in the establishment of hyperbaric oxygen therapy as hospital practice and the work in this field is present being developed in R.N. Hospital, Haslemere is producing definite evidence of success in the treatment of traumatic infections and pyogenic infections.

BRAIN OF BRITAIN 1966

We are delighted to see how well Surgeon Commander (R.N.) J. Wilkinson is doing in the radio programme 'Brain of Britain 1966'. At the time of writing he has reached the sixth hour and we wish him luck in the seventh. Unfortunately we shall not know the result before we go to press.

Articles

HYPERBARIC OXYGEN THERAPY: REVIEW OF THE PRESENT POSITION AND EXPERIENCES IN THE MANAGEMENT OF NAVAL PATIENTS

By Alan H. Trevelly and James Watt*

The history of the therapeutic application of air under pressure has been well discussed by Lambson *et al.* (1964). Hyperbaric therapy has suffered cyclic acceptance and rejection since it was first introduced to medicine by Henshaw, an Englishman, in 1667. He constructed a "dewarhouse" lined with oiled bellows which was capable of producing both a hyperbaric atmosphere which he considered more suitable for acute ailments and hypobaric atmosphere which he reserved for chronic conditions.

The idea, however, did not take on even though, a century later, Haerlem Royal Academy of Sciences offered a prize for a chamber which would permit the study of the biological effects of a hypobaric environment. It was therefore not until the 19th century that compressed air chambers were again used therapeutically, pioneered by Finsen following upon the work of Juncos (1834). On this occasion, a more speedy popularity among the more sophisticated society of mid-century Europe and usage rather than rationale determined its application to such diverse conditions as cholera and rabies deliriums. Only Paul Bert seems to have adopted a scientific approach and he demonstrated, in 1878, that raised atmospheric pressure reduced the partial volume of nitrogen oxide needed to produce a toxic fatality level of asphyxia. Finsen (1879) designed a home-driven hyperbaric operating chamber (Fig. 1) which toured the Paris hospitals and reported more rapid and satisfactory recovery from asphyxia caused not in this situation



Figure 1. Finsen's Hyperbaric Operating Chamber, 1879

*Reprints are obtainable from Professor James Watt, R.N. Hospital, Falmouth.

It was evident that such a space of experimental therapy in an unknown field should reveal unexpected dangers and we are indebted to Tyger (1941) for the first account of "bends" affecting coast workers employed on the Lorne river bed.

Towards the end of the 19th century interest in hyperbaric therapy waned and we hear little more about it until 1907 when Cunningham built in Kansas City, a cylinder 16 feet long and 40 feet in diameter with individual rooms fitted with all the amenities of the times and pressurized to two atmospheres absolute with air. Cunningham was fortunate in finding a wealthy patron who impressed by Cunningham's theory that anaesthetic anaesthetics were invariable for many common diseases, provided the financial resources to construct a huge spherical chamber six stories high, sixty-four feet in diameter and containing seventy-two rooms (Fig. 2). However, although Cunningham claimed striking successes, he was so fearful to produce evidence which would satisfy the American Medical Association (1910) and the form of therapy left one dubious. Cunningham's chamber survived until 1942 when it was demolished to produce war housing and its scrap metal for the war effort after serving masterfully as a model museum, hospital and centre for military pilot training. Great resources were spent in the quest of hyperbaric therapy by such projects and the curious record of interest in bend upon bend stands as a tribute.



Figure 2. The chamber built by and named after, 1907 by Cunningham.

It is however important to recognize that the early hyperbaric therapy was concerned only with air under pressure in spite of the fact that Priestley had discovered oxygen in 1775. This may have been due in part to Lavoisier's (1789) description of the inflammatory action of oxygen on the lungs of animals. There is report of experiments on birds and animals exposed to long periods of hyperbaric oxygen, not in 1799, Lomon Smith's description of the pulmonary changes of oxygen poisoning in birds breathing 70 to 80 per cent oxygen at only one

atmosphere. However, Donald (1946, 1947) whose three papers arose from work carried out on trials of direct perfusion for arrest in the Royal Navy, never saw oxygen concentrations as high as previously found, but 1 atmosphere absolute when compression was carried out in dry chambers, although oxygen concentrations did occur at these pressures in divers under water. He also found no evidence of lung damage as a result of his patients.

These facts having therefore been determined, the stage was set for the use of hyperbaric oxygen therapy which began with Boucraut of Amsterdam who, in 1955, used a chamber provided by the Royal Netherlands Navy as a hyperbaric operating theatre for experimental and clinical surgery. Describing life without blood (1960), Boucraut *et al.* showed that pigs whose haemoglobin was lowered to 5-6 per cent could survive short periods at 3 ATA of pure oxygen on the amount of oxygen dissolved in the plasma. Encouraged by this they were able to operate successfully upon children with Fallot's tetralogy using oxygen at 3 ATA, and maintain hypothermia (Boucraut *et al.* 1962).

Churchill Davidson *et al.* (1959) reported that the hypoxic cells in the centres of malignant tumours became more radio-sensitive if their hypoxic state could be replaced by hyperbaric oxygen. Also Gray *et al.* (1959) had shown that cells deprived of oxygen have their sensitivity to deep X-ray therapy reduced by a factor of three. Gray also claimed that some oxygen did not affect normal tissue cells: it was the ideal adjunct to radiotherapy. Controlled trials are now being undertaken in several centres including that at St Mary's Hospital, Portsmouth which under the aegis of Dr J. R. Mallison provides radiotherapy facilities for the Royal Naval Hospital, Haslar. Mallison (1966) reported that, contrary to expectations, preliminary results appeared to suggest that, for bladder cancer at least, radiotherapy with oxygen at 3 ATA carried a worse immediate prognosis. On the other hand van der Linde *et al.* (1966) reported improved results in the treatment of tumours including bladder cancer, with hyperbaric oxygen.

Smith and May (1968), working in Glasgow, reported the beneficial effects of oxygen at 3 ATA in the treatment of patients suffering from carbon monoxide poisoning, following up a suggestion made originally by Haldane in 1895. Smith (1961) was able to report that the only two deaths among the 50 patients he treated occurred in patients given shortly after eight hours. Hyperbaric oxygen plays the dual role in carbon monoxide poisoning of accelerating the dissolved oxygen in the plasma and also of increasing the rate of destruction of carboxy-haemoglobin.

It was essential that attention should be devoted to other clinical conditions resulting from hypoxic states and Braemstedt *et al.* (1961) discussed the experimental evidence which led to their remarkable success in the treatment of gas gangrene at 3 ATA. However, the clinical application has rarely fulfilled the early promise of animal experiments and the dramatic drop in mortality achieved by Smith and Levine (1962) using hyperbaric oxygen after ligation of the descending branch of the left coronary artery in dogs, has not yet been established in coronary artery occlusion in man, but extensive clinical trials are in progress and give grounds for guarded optimism. Peripheric vascular disease on the other

head, has proved unusually disappointing apart from temporary healing of trophic ulcers in spite of the initial enthusiasm of Etingworth (1962) and others. Nevertheless, hyperbaric oxygen may prove to have a place during thrombolytic operations, particularly in regard to carotid artery occlusion (Hingworth, 1966) upon this McDowell *et al.* (1965) using the hypobaric chamber method supported by Langer and Langer (1962) have shown that ethiodiform, unlike iodoholms, does not cause cerebral vasoconstriction which may be advantageous in aneurysms during hyperbaric oxygen therapy for other conditions by preventing against the danger of oxygen poisoning.

Acute traumatic cranial trauma is quite another matter: even the circulation of a limb may be temporarily jeopardised by a combination of arterial injury, haematoma, oedema and fracture and in these circumstances hyperbaric oxygen therapy can buy time until the circulation becomes re-established. The same is true of temporarily occluded skin flaps.

Neonatal asphyxia seems to have been an obvious indication for hyperbaric oxygen and Hutchinson *et al.* (1948) of the Department of Child Health, Glasgow, using the Vickers infant and were able to resuscitate neonates after various measures had failed. However their use with little success in the respiratory distress syndrome of the newborn child they turned to correct the metabolic acidosis by intravenous bicarbonate which they showed to be the important therapeutic principle involved (Hutchinson *et al.* 1952). Indeed, Burns and Miller (1966) reported the constant finding of severe respiratory and metabolic acidosis in neonates in whom oxygen was administered in the hyperbaric conditions, in spite of adequate arterial oxygen tensions. The work of Bickman indicated that asphyctic neonates would respond readily to hyperbaric oxygen therapy but it is quicker and more logical to give blood, since when this is refused by the parent who may belong to the next house in Johnson's Warehouse. Reports of such cases are beginning to appear and a personal communication concerning a recent problem of this nature emphasises the speed of recovery and the size of the neurologic response. The effect of hyperbaric oxygen on diagnosis of asphyxia has also been studied: severely asphyctic suffering from traumatic and haemorrhagic shock. It is effective only if treatment is commenced early and in the case of haemorrhagic shock, if the pressure is raised above 2 ATA (Blair *et al.* 1967). Finally, there is some evidence that hyperbaric oxygen in association with hypothermia may improve the results of cardiac and kidney transplantation (Hatchford *et al.* 1965).

The danger of any new therapeutic method is that it will be hailed as a panacea for everything that may lead to cerebral or functional loss of treatment and a quite of ill-considered chase for the success of oxygen under pressure, ignored the recognition of responsible neurologists. Fortunately, the major centres in this country (Milton) and the United States recognised that the new therapy was largely experimental and that a great deal of careful research would be necessary before the benefits and dangers of hyperbaric oxygen could be fully treated. Preliminary studies were reported at the First, Second and Third International Conferences in Amsterdam (1962), Glasgow (1964) and Durham, U.S.A. (1965) and a large number of controlled trials are currently being conducted, supported by com-

performance, utilization of the biochemical assays blood gas, and hematocrit, which are experimental and clinical measures which should give their names to a group of studies.

RATIONALE

Hemoglobin concentration is regulated by the fact that the proteins used in blood proteins are synthesized in accordance with commercial engineering practices and are similar to those used in protein tanks and systems. Table 1 is an attempt to provide specific terms.

TABLE 1
Protein Definitions

Hb (H) IN WATER	BLOOD PROTEIN			GASOL PROTEIN	
	See (H) in	See (H) in	See (H) in	See (H) in	See (H) in
Normal	100	100	1	1	1
100 (1000 ml)	100	100	2	100	1
400 (1000 ml)	400	400	2	400	2

The concept of hemoglobin oxygen therapy is based upon enough physiological evidence to give reasonable grounds for believing that it has a place in the treatment of hypoxic states which cannot be relieved by other means. In fact, it provides a practical demonstration of Henry's Law which states that the solubility of gases in the blood is directly proportional to the pressure of those gases in the vessels. When the human torso breathes air at atmospheric pressure (1 ATA, 760 mm Hg or 10.3 lbs per sq in) it has about the hemoglobin is 97% per cent saturated with oxygen and there is an unutilized amount of oxygen 100 ml per 100 ml or 0.3 volumes per cent dissolved in the plasma. When human pike oxygen is breathed at 1 ATA, the hemoglobin is 100 per cent saturated and therefore any increase in the oxygen content of the blood must occur as the result of an increase in the amount of oxygen dissolved in the plasma. Under these circumstances 10 ml of oxygen are dissolved in every 100 ml of plasma. If pure oxygen is breathed at 2 ATA, 0.2 ml of oxygen are dissolved in every 100 ml of plasma. When the ambient pressure is increased to 3 ATA, if oxygen, the amount of oxygen dissolved in the plasma is approximately 0.3 volumes per cent which more than compensates for the normal difference between the oxygen content of arterial and mixed venous blood and should be sufficient to maintain life without hemoglobin (Fig. 3). This would not, however, be observed in practice because, as DeLorge and Solomon (1961) have pointed out, the oxygen requirements of individual organs vary and

Forster (1967) has shown that the arterio-venous difference of tissue, muscle may be as high as 60% volume per cent. So much for the oxygen content of the plasma in response to hyperbaric oxygen. There is of course a corresponding increase in the oxygen content of arterial blood which ought to accelerate the rate of exchange of oxygen between blood and tissue cells. The partial pressure of oxygen in the arterial blood (pO_2) is 100 mm. Hg when the patient is breathing air at 1 ATA (360 mm. Hg). If he now breathes 100 per cent oxygen at 1 ATA, his pO_2 becomes 760 less the combined partial pressures of carbon dioxide and water vapour i.e. 40 and 47 mm. Hg respectively giving an arterial pO_2 of 673 mm. Hg. At 2 ATA this becomes 2×760 less 87 i.e., 1433 mm. Hg and theoretically at 3 ATA, 3×760 less 87 or 2163 mm. Hg although respiratory inefficiency reduces this to about 2000 mm. Hg.

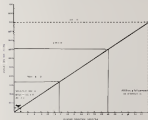


Figure 3. The diffusion theory - Law

Hypothetical physiology would therefore appear to predict a foreseeable response to hyperbaric oxygen therapy. However, Lamberton *et al.* (1957) drew attention to the considerable gap between the rise in the partial pressure of oxygen in the arterial blood which they achieved by hyperbaric oxygen therapy at 3.5 ATA, in terms of actual mass and the very modest rise (5% per cent) in the mass total oxygen content of the arterial blood at that pressure. The total oxygen content of the arterial blood is the sum of the oxygen carried by the haemoglobin of the red cells plus the amount of oxygen physically dissolved in

the plasma. If the patient is a normal healthy male breathing air at 1 ATA, these values are 11.5 and 5.5 volumes per cent, respectively (Baron, 1949) i.e. a total of 16.8 volumes per cent. If the patient now breathes oxygen at 1 ATA, these values become 20 and 4 volumes per cent respectively, i.e. a total of 24 volumes per cent representing a 34 per cent increase in the total oxygen content of arterial blood. Thus, in situations where the partial pressure of oxygen is more important than the total oxygen content, hyperbaric therapy offers more prospects of success.

TECHNIQUES OF HYPERBARIC OXYGEN ADMINISTRATION

Oxygen may be given under pressure either by creating a pure hyperbaric oxygen environment or by providing an ambient atmosphere of hypobaria at the patient breathing oxygen through a face mask. No mask is a hundred per cent efficient but Lindholm et al. (1961) have shown that the mask designed by the R.A.F. Institute of Aviation Medicine which is mounted on the face and has a primary respiratory valve and the pressure demand regulator, achieves 95 per cent of the possible maximum performance with an increase of patient comfort as compared with the 60 per cent performance of a standard B.L. 8 mask.

Modern therapeutic chambers may be as big as small, one man chambers, in large ones capable of treating several patients at a time while hyperbaric oxygenation chambers used as such exist at Amsterdam, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Duke University. Dryman chambers, as ideal, provided that the patient does not suffer from claustrophobia, is conscious and co-operative, require no stirring attention during the two hours or more at pressure and is surrounded by no bulky supporting apparatus. Otherwise he must be cradled in a large unit where the oxygen, scrubbers and nursing staff run the gamut risk. Since they are breathing air, decompression may result in one of the forms of decompression sickness from which the patient is protected because he is breathing oxygen. The patient, however, must be capable of wearing a tight fitting mask and anyone or machinery involving the head and neck, would preclude this.

HAZARDS OF A HYPERBARIC ENVIRONMENT

Royal Navy medical officers are familiar enough with the problems of diving to appreciate the risks that may be incurred during the decompression phase by oxygen, scrubbers and nursing staff attending a patient in a large compression chamber. They have been well reviewed by Professor Walder (1961) who is chairman of the Medical Research Council's Panel on Decompression Sickness and by Captain Commander Elliott (1961, 1964). The various syndromes result from air or nitrogen bubbles appearing in the tissues or blood vessels which give rise to the foams causing pain in the regions of large vessels, rupture of the coronary vessels are affected, the fibrils of the lungs are involved and the alveoli or even pulmonary when the central nervous system is implicated. If a lung spot or embolisation bubble is captured a pneumothorax results. Walder has shown that splitting of the interpleural septa of the lung can occur during decompression involving a small pulmonary vein and that an embolism may therefore occur.

for the various manifestations of decompression sickness. In the long term there is also the danger of oxygen toxicity of lungs (McCullum *et al.* 1966) and a search for such lesions amongst naval divers is currently being conducted by Surgeon Commander J. A. B. Sherson and Surgeon Commander D. H. Elliott. It is therefore important that workers in compressed air environments should have the preliminary medical examination suggested by Brown and Smith (1960): general physical examination including the ear, nose and throat, chest X-ray, ophthalmological skeletal survey, ECG, haemoglobin and haematocrit. Watkins (1966) points out that susceptibility to decompression sickness increases with age (over 40), the amount of adipose tissue and the stored nitrogen concentration and he draws attention to the work of Foytner *et al.* (1964) on nitrogen narcosis. Interest in divers in the tank. He suggests that vigorous breathing air at a pressure of 1 ATA or more could well confer structural impairment which might influence clinical judgment. Watkins (1965) has recorded personal experience.

The risk of fire in a chamber pressurized to 3 ATA, with air at least much greater than at atmospheric pressure (Parker 1966) and it does not appear that the hazard is significantly increased if the patient breathes oxygen while the chamber is compressed with air (Dewar *et al.* 1966). However the oxygen is quite different when the chamber is compressed with oxygen, the usual procedure with one-man chambers. Dewar *et al.* (1966) have pointed a hazardous pattern of the risks to men deduced from their experimental work on pigs (Dewar 1966). They have shown that under these conditions pre-ignition of the flame by the chain bar and the way of striking sparks which cause combustion of the edges of the material and melted it (increase in the rate of burning). Sweat, grease or paint increases the ignition risk and fire starting of clothing with boxes and lamp caps or friction demands it. They recommended that patients should wear uniformly light-coloured light-weight night-sweated open-weave fire-proof garments. They also suggest that the chamber should be fitted with a Dupont type automatic flame detection system and a water-sprinkler system capable of providing a spray density of 5 ml per square per square centimetre within 2 seconds of ignition. In addition they found that an open ended hose was required to protect gloves and soles. The tolerance of covers was that patients should be compressed with air and breathe oxygen through a mask.

On the other hand Parker (1966) writing in the same journal observed that in radioltherapy, a mask would increase the pCO₂ level and the danger of non valvular. He concluded that in radioltherapy with hypothermia oxygen delivered in the one-man chamber the fire risk was negligible provided that the patient was suitably clothed (by an incubator rather than a blanket) and that electrical leads were protected by this enclosure. Parker showed that in oxygen the minimum chamber oxygen level between 1 and 10 ml/g litre and he found no difference between oxygen at 1 ATA and 3 ATA. While this oxygen could be needed by man held up it could also be needed by animal patients. However, he warned against the increasing use of electrical wiring for monitoring purposes and suggested that there be restricted to current leads for standard mechanical equipment.

There then are the chief hazards, but there may be others such as 'spontaneous' oxygen bubbles in the erythrocytes and a risk of explosion or release of gases from malfunctioning components e.g. from rubber hoses (Hess 1966). Safety there must be and the Ad Hoc Committee on Hyperbaric Oxygenation of the American National Academy of Sciences (1967) has made important recommendations regarding the operation of hyperbaric chambers. It is nevertheless important to recognize that these chambers have been subjected to extensive testing and provided that normal precautions are taken and the chambers are operated according to the manufacturers' instructions the risks involved are probably no greater than those in which patients and operating team are exposed daily in most operating theatres.

Care of course must be exercised in the choice of anaesthetic agents if operations are contemplated in the large chamber. No satisfactory method appears yet to have been developed of estimating flow meters, accurately for a hyperbaric environment and the anaesthetists must depend upon careful clinical evidence and accurate monitoring throughout the anaesthesia. Steps must also be taken to avoid loss of consciousness or called sales during the decompression phase of the cycle and request during decompression. Berlitz and Selimov (1967) reported that hyperventilation, possibly resulting from hyperventilation during those under hyperbaric conditions may have been responsible for the sub-optimal morbidity and even mortality of some of these patients. They advocated a mixture of 20 per cent nitrous oxide and 80 per cent oxygen. It was in fact Paul Bert who first pointed out the advantages of nitrous oxide anaesthesia in a hyperbaric environment, but Verneker-Grooth (1961) of Amsterdam has warned that rapid decompression would cause disaster because of the appearance of nitrogen made gas bubbles in the circulation. For this reason he was flexible as a flexible response. McDowell *et al.* (1964) on the other hand believe that nitrogen anaesthesia is to be preferred because of the cerebral vasodilation of nitrous oxide which interestingly enough does not appear to add to the danger of oxygen toxicity. It should therefore hold out possibilities in the management of head injuries. Nitrous relaxants do not appear to be affected by a hyperbaric environment.

All patients whether anaesthetized or not or oxygen may suffer from barotrauma or even gas and some substances such as Churchill Davidson have advocated nitrous hypoxiaemia but most people would consider this unnecessary.

There remains the problem of oxygen toxicity. Unfortunately most of the findings have been reported in laboratory animals which are known to be much more sensitive to an excess of oxygen than man. Hargens (1964) drew attention to the lag period following exposure before symptoms develop and the readiness with which intra-ocular could be reversed by return to atmospheric pressure. He suggested that these phenomena supported the hypothesis that oxygen reacted at toxic effects by the oxidation of proteins or radicals, resulted in tissue metabolism and produced experimental evidence to prove his point. Clasper *et al.* (1965) reported about the same time that oxidation of reduced proteins increases that responsible for these reversible toxic effects. The preliminary effects of oxygen

toxicity have not been correlated at present as much as pulmonary reactions with sublethal pain and an increasing degree of dyspnea does occur. The pO₂ and duration of exposure are the determining factors for the production of toxicity and 25 hours continuous exposure to 100 per cent O₂ at sea level has caused pulmonary symptoms. At the usual therapeutic levels (up to 6 atm) in a pressure of under 3 ATA for 2 to 4 hours, no consistent effects on oxygen toxicity have been reported as such, but it is important to avoid a build up of carbon dioxide in the chamber which obscures the positive vasoconstriction effect of oxygen upon cerebral blood vessels and Marshall and Lamberton (1961) have shown that there is an increased tendency to convulsions under such conditions. On the other hand, prolonged oxygen therapy in patients where cerebral function is impaired to chronic hypoxia may lead to disorientation, confusion and coma (Pillay et al 1966) and this happened to one of our patients.

Finally, Ballantine (1966) has shown, starting in three types of animal brain, in experimental animals exposed to raised oxygen tensions, neuronal lysis, effective necrosis of the vital cell layer of the retina and symmetrical degeneration of axons in the peripheral cell layer of the retina. They should sound a note of warning to those who advocate about the concentration of neurons by hyperbaric oxygen for it is the effect which is at risk.

THE HYPERBARIC UNIT, ROYAL NAVAL HOSPITAL HASLAR

It was natural that a Service predominantly occupied with research into the problems of underwater medicine should explore the possibilities of the new therapy and the Medical Director-General (Naval) appointed a committee to consider the advisability of establishing a unit for high pressure oxygen therapy at Haslar which reported in December 1960 that it had been unable to establish enough evidence to support such a project at that time, although it acknowledged that hyperbaric oxygen appeared to have an important role in the management of carbon monoxide poisoning and gas gangrene and of an interest in radiotherapy. It observed that this was a time-consuming technique requiring high carbon monoxide mixing and technical staff and suggested that a one man chamber had advantages in this respect.

The increase in civilian diving accidents, then led to consideration of facilities for the treatment of such cases other than in naval medical establishments, particularly if complications required hospital facilities and the advantages of having a unit at Haslar were also enough to deal with this problem and also provide hyperbaric oxygen therapy was obvious.

In February 1966, during a visit to the Far East, one of us became involved in the provision of hyperbaric oxygen facilities for a Chinese soldier with multiple injuries and trauma, several insufficiency of one lower limb following injury of the femoral artery and treatment of associated fractures. A naval oxygen recompression chamber weighing 100 lb and mounted on skids (Fig. 4) was fixed with a manifold at H.M. Dockyard, Singapore, to enable two oxygen cylinders to be coupled together in such a manner that empty cylinders could be changed without reducing oxygen flow. A first limitation for constant therapy was

eventually they continued to give service as well as on the Far East where it has been just discarded for the advantage of a craft of Japanese origin.

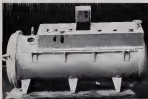


Figure 1. The hypobaric oxygen chamber (London).

This experience indicated the importance of having light weight, as portable one-man hypobaric oxygen chambers available in theatre of war to treat the type of patient. British Forces had been fortunate during the Borneo campaign in using most of the gas gangrene which has been a problem to the Americans in Vietnam because of the widespread use there of light and by Vietnamese peasants. Nevertheless it was evident that the great keeping role of the Royal Navy might at any time require a Royal Marine Commando to be landed from a carrier or vessel which was fortunate to build upwards then that of Borneo. The almost naval chamber was robust enough but cumbersome to handle and much too heavy for easy transport by air. It was less at the tropic, vapour was considerably poor and its ports were too small to permit adequate observation of the patient while in consciousness (this was unsatisfactory for all and endangered patients). The Indian one-man chamber was lighter and its double, transparent plastic cylinder corrected the problem of poor observation and to some extent the claustrophobia, experience of those under treatment. However the end was not so heavy — the chamber and its console together weigh 1264 lbs. — while its closed circuit oxygen respiration and humidifier systems do provide quite a sophisticated electrical control retained it too complicated for everyday use; and although we liked its white enamel painted frame and undercarriage and its facilities for intravenous infusion and patient monitoring. Strapping in transport leading to confusion in the case plastic chamber is a personnel hauled through the double hull is a safeguard and while the chamber

and its operation essentially is a rather dependent upon skilled manipulation of the air, the quality of the air in desert or jungle. Nevertheless, the Hader chamber provides, in its comparatively single chamber facilities for hyperbaric therapy in hospital use, 14.



Figure 1. Hader chamber, 200 lb., 4 ft. x 14 ft. x 14 ft.

After studying all the available, one-man chambers that which appeared to meet most nearly our need requirements, was the Hader unit developed by Smith and Morton (1946) and the firm supplied a prototype for testing at Hader. It consisted of a compact Morgan chamber design like a horizontal one tube, the open end of which was closed by a detachable plexiglass dome protected by a metal guard and supported on a rigid telescopic tube (fig. 10). Through avoiding a complicated control mechanism was simplified for simplicity to achieve a free oxygen flow which we vented to the exterior of the building in order to avoid oxygen contamination in the room. Since the chamber was manually controlled in dependence of electrical circuitry, readily accessible and virtually water proof, it appeared to offer the ideal unit for the modern casualty situation. Experiments, however, revealed shortcomings and following clinical trials we recommended modifications which have now been included in the Mark II Hader chamber (fig. 7). These include a pressure capability of 3 ATA, facilities for pressure rating with or without the replacement of the wheeled design by Gals for an transport and a replaceable viewing window for easy movement of the unit within the hospital or task quarters, access plates for monitoring facilities, a sampling port for monitoring ambient gases and height adjustment to facilitate patient transfer in and from trailers. The rather heavy metal head and V clamp used to secure the Mark I chamber has now been replaced by a robust interlocking bayonet device. The chamber weighs only 118 lbs. without the trailer and can be readily transported



Figure 6. Spacecraft Test Chamber



Figure 7. The Mark 10 Vacuum Pressure Chamber and study test cells

be anticipated, then observed or by a technician subjected to extremely pressure tests and following the Apollo disaster at Cape Kennedy (Apollo 1966) which caused the death of three astronauts in a space capsule with oxygen at a pressure of 16 p.s.i. the communication system has been redesigned and totally

external. An additional safeguard against the risk of explosion has been the provision of a double perperp dome at the head end. Unfortunately the protective metal panel which was a feature of the Mark II model has been omitted from the Mark III version and it is doubtful whether sufficient care would be taken in one of the way back areas to insure that the perperp domes are not crushed. All perperp assemblies ready and there may well be an additional problem with stored perperp since the internal pressure may tend to open up small grooves although on the other hand perperp distribution may be more immediate from the surface of a dome. Scratching of the inner dome of one of our chambers was traced to damage by the internal air being fully run home. The ends of the assembly have not been polished, but the perperp must not be stressed in both the handling and the cleaning of perperp parts. Solvents and inflammable materials are avoided and it is probably advisable to use an antistatic spray. Further modifications to the instrument panel will be required but they are of a minor nature.

In 1966 provision was made for a single hypotherm and in Huxley and a variable chamber capable of being used as an operating theatre for subacute therapy to be the right of use requiring medical assistance throughout treatment was designed in consultation with Neutroline who built the chambers at Glasgow and Aberdeen. However it was clear that ambition for operating in hypotherm chambers had waned and enthusiasm was limited. In fact some hypotherm chambers in the country and elsewhere appear to be used mainly for experimental work. The Superintendent of the Royal Naval Physiological Laboratory had from time to time kindly provided large chamber facilities in special cases and the experience of his staff has always been freely available to us. It was therefore clear that one of the large naval chambers would suit our long experiments for therapy and as a first step a low man chamber has been acquired. When the final one is built as an extension of the new casualty department in Huxley it is hoped to acquire a large chamber which will then take care of the pattern requiring constant attention.

The Huxley unit consists of a chamber room 10 ft by 10 ft, preparation room and small laboratory. Necessary safety precautions are readily catered for. There is an automatic pressure floor discharge and the walls are painted with a durable glass paint. Staff are trained in the technique and wear cotton uniforms, cotton caps, an automatic rubber-encased nerve stimulator. The patient is strapped, plastic drainage discarded and oxygen gases removed. He has a washed in drainage system and a suitable catheter drainage is used as he lies. He then dons a single layer, fire-proof, cotton garment marked by a compressive mould and bound in the armpits and wrists. Bags are taken to ensure that he discharges urine before he enters the chamber, the humidity of which is maintained at 65 per cent. He is closely attended before and after each compression, special attention being given to the ears and ocular pressures are made. When necessary an EMT operator is sought regarding decompression, asphyxiation or the reaction of a patient to a pressure with pain or present air disease. The reactions of the patient during compression are carefully recorded and a medical officer is always

present during the compression and decompression phases of treatment. He is also immediately available in other forms. The non-ventilatory chambers are suited to the needs of one and two patients and have approved by the Area Fire Officer H.M. Dooland, Portsmouth. They include boxes in the ready. Patients are required to sign a form of consent before undergoing hyperbaric oxygen therapy.



Figure 1. Interior view of the hyperbaric chamber at Royal Naval Hospital, Haslemere.

RESULTS OF TREATMENT

Twenty-eight cases were treated in the Haslemere Unit or in the large chambers of the Royal Naval Physiological Laboratory during the epidemic months from May 1966 to November 1967 as shown in table 1, which separates the results of all compression and/or run, 946 hours, 47 minutes of hyperbaric oxygen therapy at 2 ATA, except in cases 21 and 22 who received oxygen at 3 ATA.

It will be seen that one case fell into four clinical groups: traumatic rupture, gas gangrene, pyogenic infection and peripheral vascular disease. Hyperbaric facilities have not been requested for cases of carbon monoxide poisoning which have been treated by routine medical measures.

As it happened, our first case was a typical ring injury, the skin of the affected finger being divided throughout its circumference (Fig. 9) yet Fig. 10, 24 days later, merely revealed a thin fibrous circumferential scar the patient having regained full movement. Three cases in this group were unable to tolerate hyperbaric therapy and treatment was discontinued but all other cases achieved a primary healing without skin loss.

The trade policies, including tariff reductions, entered in the aftermath of European integration, 1948-1950, and the U.S. Mutual Trade Mater as of World War II, were intended to offer a solution to the problem of the foreign goods that were not wanted in the U.S. who had already spent much time in place of trade relations and had not yet been able to obtain primarily in Europe. These offers were eventually transferred to the U.S. by means of an embargo and as a measure to further prolonged membership in the U.S. was also desirable in many of these



Figure 1. Patient, 3 years post-trauma and fracture, with a ring fracture and distal humerus osteotomy.

patients were to be rehabilitated to full duty as the Service. Since the form of internal fixation permits immediate post-operative movement without external immobilization our usual orthopaedic supports have been unused in this technique in Switzerland. However, unlike the Swiss ring problems these antiseptic surgery through the skin of healthy skin, our supports are prepared with the multiple uses of garden wounds, after quickly drying and then reporing further that cover before the definitive operation to fix the bone. It is noted that following A.O. plating the skin should not break down if the handle of the marked ring to be secured. The stress link which handles such an event has been a clear indication for hyperbaric therapy in these cases. The devascularized tip of a non joining fracture dislocation of the ankle treated by compression screwing from it was saved by hyperbaric oxygen and the wound usually healed twenty or days later. It was necessary to abandon therapy in case 2, who suffered from chronic bronchitis and emphysema, on account of the adverse effects of oxygen upon his 'hypoxic drive' while bilateral haemocompression put an end to therapy in case 3.



FIG. 4.1. Plaster of Paris bandage—A—over—wound of hypoglossal nerve.

Four cases were sent to us from hospitals elsewhere with a diagnosis of gas gangrene, but we were able to confirm a Clostridial infection in only two of these (cases 10 and 11) in which Cl. Welchii was isolated. At least cases 20 yielded proteolytic bacteria and anaerobic liquid media on culture and the other (case 21), depth gangrene. The two cases with Cl. Welchii infection were removed (case 10) with established gas gangrene, an abscess, hypoglossitis (113°F), rapid pulse rate (160+), profuse sweating, covered continuous fluid serousanguinous discharge from open wounds overlying the base of the involved lower limb and radiological evidence of distal gas gangrene (fig. 11). Case 10 had gas gangrene. Both cases were treated initially by hypertonic oxygen, a total daily dose of 50 mega units of penicillin intravenously and thorough surgical debridement, the wounds being left open. The gas gangrene was reduced progressively as the patient improved, a total of between 450 and 500 mega units being required. In each case distal improvement followed the last 24 hour period of hypertonic oxygen the temperature and pulse rate falling rapidly and manual continuous debridement. Gaseous disappeared from the tissue within 12 hours.

In the group of progressive infectious lower cases were unable to tolerate hyperbaric oxygen requiring treatment to be abandoned, but early wound healing was achieved in all others. In case 18 a later case developed requiring the removal of a fragment of dead bone, after which healing was prompt.

The only reactions in the group suffering from peripheral vascular disease were minor ones and were seen in cases 24 and 25 whose radiated temperature changes responded to hypertonic therapy after 65 and 11 hours respectively.



Figure 1. 1,000% oxygenation. Eyes, nose, and an occluded mouthpiece.

DISCUSSION

It is important to emphasize that *referrals* of patients was generated entirely by one post-observation data hypothesis in this system as the best means of the patient and that no other form of this type could have been expected to locally in the same system. It is not doing to deny our controlled trials in experimental animals but it requires a disclaimer we do not feel we possess both to withhold therapy from patients who might deteriorate without it and to offer the technique to patients who could be expected to do equally well from alternative methods and without the discomfort it occasionally entails. We therefore abandoned hyperbaric therapy for the complication of peripheral vascular disease as soon as it became evident that our results were no better than those of others in the field, but we persisted in the treatment of staphylococcal infections because we were satisfied that hyperbaric oxygen averted potential disaster, namely of sepsisemia and often the loss to the benefit of valuable trained personnel.

Traumatic arterial occlusion appears to be the mechanism *par excellence* for ischaemic injury. At 1 ATA a temporarily stopped circulation can carry sufficient oxygen dissolved in the plasma to maintain adequate tissue oxygenation until oxidative metabolic breakdown is absorbed collateral channels open up or capillary pressure returns to normal. Shock, vascular injury, fractures and severe soft tissue injury complicate the wounds of modern warfare and while hyperbaric therapy is no substitute for adequate fluid replacement, the increasing of mass blood volume and dilated capillaries is very beneficial prior to the loss or the patient's post-operative course which gives a limb or vital skin flap (figs. 12 and 13).

We have been privileged to find that the varying degrees of injury associated with the break down of dermal and post capillary skin outlying tissue treated by compression therapy, have responded equally to hyperbaric oxygen and normal



Figure 12. One primary result of treated skin flap flaps in inclusion of oxygen

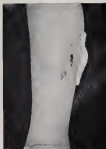


Figure 1. — Skin flap lesion, a cross (top) and (bottom) type of lesion.

handling has been rapid and permanent. The role of hyperbaric therapy in pyogenic infections is defined in terms of the responsibility in obtaining a comparable control group. But McAllister *et al.* (1965) have shown that oxygen at 2 ATA is toxic for all organisms (although trichomonads rather than bacteroides) and that it potentiates the effects of antibiotics. They studied streptococci, staphylococci, coliforms, pneumomonas, pneumococci and proteus as well as the yeast candida albicans and the fungus aspergillus. As might be expected they found that organisms had a variable susceptibility, pneumococci being especially sensitive. However, it is to be noted that organisms were found to change their morphology and metabolism under hyperbaric oxygenation, and this may have important implications. Black *et al.* (1964) have planned working systems in testing pyogenic infections of bone but there have been few other observations along this line. However, we had a remarkable coincidence by which to measure the values of our own hyperbaric oxygen therapy in the treatment of pyogenic infections came out of

our small, banding one its copy traced to bacterioid and transferred to a well-developed organism following A-G plating. Normally this would have been a period of prolonged morbidity with the loss of intestinal function; yet the animals of all ages released by pressure therapy bled rapidly and the underlying bacteria moved normally. By contrast, the two cases (12 and 26) who refused to accept the treatment had prolonged morbidity.

At the time we received our cases of gas gangrene, we had available only our prototype and main chamber with a pressure capability of 3 ATA, and Sherratt-Kump (1961) has suggested that a pressure of 3 ATA is necessary to inhibit the production of alpha toxin and kill the bacteria although MacIntyre et al. (1962) showed that 2 ATA was toxic for both anaerobes and aerobes alike. It might well be claimed that our results are no better than if we had degraded severely upon massive interference conditions and extension of distal muscle. However, the remarkable recovery from the effects of toxemia followed in such cases immediately upon the first hyperbaric exposures and before debridement had been carried out or the full effects of antibiotic therapy had been achieved. Moreover, while resolution continued usually thereafter, it failed to provide the spectacular greater resolution of the vital records. This is a common experience and MacIntyre is quoting the work of MacIntyre et al. (1961) emphasizing it is the fact that as the anaerobic bacteria are rapidly killed and no new alpha toxin is formed the alpha toxin already in circulation is rapidly fixed and eliminated. We are confident that hyperbaric oxygen will enable the remarkable improvement to be carried out at a lower level than would otherwise be the case. For instance it was possible to perform a through bone amputation in case 20 (figs. 14 and 15) although his cellulitis had extended to mid-thigh level (fig. 16) and reduced hyperbaric oxygen may well have saved this patient's life. The line of demarcation which subsequently developed between the non-viable tissue and those which recovered is illustrated in case 11 (fig. 17). The degree of recovery permitted a below knee amputation (fig. 18). Proved, therefore, that such cases are resolved in time to make a final blow at the suffering anaerobic organisms before they have succeeded in destroying enough muscle to make amputation inevitable, hypobaric oxygen at 3 ATA, in comparison with massive antitoxin, penicillin and surgical debridement, offers excellent prospects of saving both life and limb.

Cases suffering from peripheral vascular disease did not justify benefits from hyperbaric oxygen and the results in this group were as disappointing as those reported by others. The Glasgow cases did so badly or worse than the others references and, in the former, unexpectedly appeared to make no difference, while our pain was sometimes relieved and occasionally made worse. This is a little surprising in view of the excellent results from hyperbaric oxygen upon hypoxia, gases resulting from the reduced arterial flow in peripheral vasoconstriction and the oxygen may well be analogous to the first hyperbaric drug in chronic bronchitis and emphysema. Much more work is required on the peripheral blood flow and it is to be noted that Reid and Telford (1962) have shown that oxygen at 3 ATA can cause a 28.5 per cent reduction in the resting forearm blood flow. Their results



Figure 14. *Stem 40: An impression of lower leaf*



Figure 15. *Stem 1: An impression of lower leaf*



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Figure 12: One step of the algorithm for computing the \mathcal{H}_2 norm of a system. The square root of the trace of the matrix \mathbf{P} is the \mathcal{H}_2 norm of the system.



Figure 10. Myofascial oxygen therapy using 100% oxygen (Lutman).

becomes a marginal mode of therapy. In perhaps myofascial may no longer have a place in rehabilitation techniques.

Some interesting results have been reported in the treatment of various head injuries consciousness being rapidly regained. This is contrary to expectation but it may be that in these conditions some of the cerebral blood vessels is obliterated while oxygen pressure does not occur because of the pre-existing nature. However much more work requires to be done on this problem before it can be considered as established therapeutic procedure.

Myofascial oxygen has been used to treat burns and there appear to be good reasons for doing so since we know that oxygen under pressure is lethal to all organisms and particularly to the protozoans which provides one of the greatest problems in the management of the less superficial of extensive burns. Furthermore Smith (1964) has shown recently that these organisms are often found at some depth from the surface and therefore are eradicated by surgical debridement prior



Figure 10. How holding under lips can allow prolonged hyperventilatory oxygen

to gassing. It therefore appears that hyperbaric oxygen might prove particularly rewarding under these circumstances and we have recently treated a heavily injured case of pressure burns with complete success.

Finally there is growing evidence of the value of hyperbaric oxygen in the treatment of shock, particularly haemorrhagic shock, and this should be of interest to all serious resuscitators. Blawiey's (1960) concept of disseminated intravascular coagulation and the work of Hardy and Adams (1961) on the use of vasodilators acting through the adrenergic receptors with PLN-3, a synthetic vasopressor acting directly upon the arterial wall, have led to much more aggressive attitude towards the treatment of hypovolaemic shock. However, further combination central venous pressure monitoring, low molecular weight dextran, the appropriate vasopressor and vasodilator and correction of the metabolic problems are still inadequate in many cases. It is in this field that hyperbaric oxygen may well prove its value and the one-man, six-portable chamber a life-saving measure.

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A CASE OF BLACKWATER FEVER

By B. Victor Jones, John M. E. Harley, and John E. Robertson

The following case is reported to illustrate the part which modern communication and efficient laboratory facilities on ships can play in dealing with cases of grave illness occurring at sea in distant waters.

The incident occurred during the withdrawal of British Forces from Aden when hospital facilities at European standard were no longer available in Aden. An emergency hospital had been set up in HMS *Adrian* to provide for the needs of the troops remaining in Aden and for the Naval Task Force which had been assembled in the area.

Case Report

Late on the evening of 17th November 1963 a signal was received from the RN's British Ambulance requesting urgent medical attention. This vessel, which carried no doctor, was at the time some 120 miles south of Aden. HMS *London* was immediately sent in her aid and met her at 0600 the next morning. The *London's* medical officer was transferred to the ship and found an extremely ill 36-year-old woman. He was confronted with an ill and deeply prostrated. The history was that seven days previously he had become ill with fever, aching in the limbs and the symptoms of an upper respiratory infection. On the fourth day of the illness he had become prostrated, with repeated pain and vomiting of bile-coloured fluid. He had passed dark stools several times a day. Despite treatment with penicillin and chloramphenicol a haemetic fever had commenced and his condition had steadily worsened. During the last twenty-four hours he had developed incoherence and had passed very dark urine. Owing to the vomiting he had not eaten little and his fluid intake had only been 3-4 pint daily for the past four days. The ship had called at Fremantle eight days prior to the onset of the illness.

The patient was immediately transferred to HMS *London* by helicopter and on the arrival patients in Aden an intravenous drip of 4.5 per cent dextrose 0.18 per cent saline was started. His blood pressure was found to be 100/60 and the haematocrit under 60 per cent. The urine contained mainly blood.

As soon as a saline drip within helicopter range the patient and medical officer were transferred to *Adrian* arriving on board at 1800. The patient's condition remained very grave. Although he successfully attempted to speak his speech was uncomprehensible and no further history could be taken. His showed the rapid fading respiratory of confusion; the liver was palpable but the spleen was not. A Graham's catheter was passed and left in, the bladder contained only 3 ml. of brown murky urine. A one-hourly urine sample chart was started, but so that the patient exerted no strain at all during the time he was on the ship.

The clinical diagnosis was uncertain. Infectious hepatitis and Weil's disease were among the possibilities considered. It was clear that the answer would depend on laboratory findings which were as follows:

Blood film — Malignant malarial parasites were present in very large numbers: 10-20 per cent of the red cells containing classical ring forms.

Haematoglobin — 5.5 gms. per cent (45 per cent Haldane).

P.C.V. — 15 per cent.

H.F.C. — 15,800. Differential count of normal distribution.

Clotting Time — This was not formally estimated but it was noted that a specimen taken into a dry bottle took 45 minutes to clot, against a normal time of about 15 minutes.

Blood Urea — In excess of 450 mgm. per cent.

Urine — Quantities of urine suggesting haemoglobin breakdown products were present. The urine was said that the quantity obtained was too small for any other investigations to be done on it.

It was thus established that the diagnosis of severe malaria with gross blood destruction and complete renal failure. Quantities of 15 mgm. was given intravenously. Four units of blood taken from a bank, which was held in the ship at that time, were given intravenously and a transfusion started.

It seemed clear that a renal dialysis as soon as possible was his only hope of survival; there were no facilities for this on board. The ship was at sea only about ten miles off Aden at the time but immediate communication with the shore was not too easy. However a signal was passed to the Senior Medical Officer of Khormaksar that Quanten, the only shore medical facility remaining in Aden, and eventually a two-way radio-telephone link established with him. He was asked if a peritoneal dialysis set was available locally or if one whether a dialysis team could be flown down from Bahrain; for it was feared that the patient might not survive any further travel unless his condition could be improved. The dialysis equipment however was available locally but an airplane aircraft equipped for casualty evacuation was due to take off from Khormaksar for Bahrain at 1100. A stretcher space was held in this aircraft until the last possible moment in case pending evacuation to Bahrain was considered the best solution to the problem. Meanwhile the remaining R.A.F. physician in Aden was flown out to the ship to give further assistance.

By the time 1100H a decision had to be made urgently. After discussion the medical officers decided to accept the flight. The helicon was raised in front of this decision by the fact that some intravenous preparations of sodium bicarbonate or sodium lactate were available on board; it was not possible to correct his acidosis, which was felt to be the most urgent necessity.

Accordingly yet another night helicopter flight was hastily arranged and at 1145 the patient, accompanied by one of the R.A.F. medical officers and with a transfusion running, took off for Khormaksar. Three more units of blood were given along in an medical container.

A blood pressure which had been taken on board ship from Khormaksar was missing but was put him on up so that it was not possible to obtain accurate blood-pressure estimations before the patient left the ship. However, these were done

as soon as possible with the following results which were later reported to the R.A.F. Hospital, Bahrain:

Serum Sodium	—	112 mEq/litre
Serum Potassium	—	7.8 — "
Serum Chloride	—	105 — "
Serum Bicarbonate	—	15 — "

On arrival in Khartoum intravenous sodium bicarbonate solution was given and the patient and his chest maintained their journey to Bahrain where they arrived some four hours later without further deterioration in the patient's condition.

Meanwhile officers had enquired to the R.A.F. Bahrain R.A.F. Hospital Helicon and the M.O.D. asking the arrangements to make for an immediate diagnosis to be carried out on arrival in Bahrain and requesting that if facilities for this were not available locally the R.A.F. Royal Clinic diagnosis team should fly out to Bahrain by the first available aircraft. In the event, this last step did not prove necessary as facilities were available in a civilian hospital in Bahrain to which the patient was taken. Here a 12 litre potassium solution was carried out, and also intravenous treatment continued with chloroform.

Following diagnosis serum investigations showed:

Serum potassium	—	5.8 mEq
Serum bicarbonate	—	19 — "
Blood urea	—	525 mg%
Prothrombin index		72 "

During the twenty four hours after his arrival in Bahrain 75 ml. of urine were excreted.

Thirty six hours after arrival in Bahrain he was again employed, this time in a C-47/VAC Douglas bound for the United Kingdom. Unfortunately he failed to abandon the jet properly, dying on the air on the last leg of the flight despite all attempts at resuscitation. No post-mortem was done.

COMMENTS

Malaria is still a killing disease. It was not known whether the man had taken malaria but it is unlikely because even the resistant strains which have recently emerged in some parts of Africa could scarcely have produced a fatal case so rapidly in the face of regular prophylactic prophylaxis. Falciparum malaria occurring in ships which have called at malarial ports must be assumed to be malarial and treated as such until the diagnosis can definitely be excluded. This applies particularly to ships without medical officers.

A great deal of effort was put into the attempt to save the man's life by the Royal and R.A.F. air and inter-communication branches, unhappily without success.

The case suggests that while air travel has revolutionized the prospects for recovery in acute illness in out-of-the-way places, repeated long air journeys are hazardous for very seriously ill patients and are not to be undertaken lightly. The crew should be to get the patient to a place where the cases of the immediate crew

can be dealt with adequately but to delay any further action until he is out of danger and has had time to recover from the debility of his previous illness.

It is of interest that this patient showed evidence of delayed blood clotting. Gerslitz, Hershovitz, and King (1964) have demonstrated abnormal fibrinogen concentrations in very severe cases of malaria and suggest that intravascular coagulation may play a part in the pathogenesis of cerebral malaria and might be a causal factor in the mechanism of blackwater fever. If this were so, thrombolysis and anticoagulant therapy might be of use in severe *P. falciparum* infection.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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VESICO-URTERIC REFLUX IN CHILDREN

by Fergus A. F. Macdonald

Recurrent urinary tract infections in children may be associated with vesico-urinary reflux with flow of urine from the bladder into the ureters during micturition. This often may be transient, but if persistent may lead to chronic pyelonephritis (Melson & Edwards, 1959; Edwards, 1960). Urinary reflux can cause severe renal damage in young children and it is important to recognise it early. Reflux should be considered in any child who has recurrent urinary tract infections which fail to respond to medical treatment. These children frequently fail to thrive and may have increased frequency and duration, or occasionally haematuria. Intravenous pyelography may be normal or fail to radiate the reflux of the urine, which is only fully displayed by the technique of micturating cystography, with or without urotheliumography. Reflux is not observed in normal children and is a reliable sign of abnormality, which persists (Mallinson, Marshall & Fergus, 1961).

De Lora, Fisher and Terrason (1960) examined 1,179 cases of recurrent urinary tract infections in children. Of these 304 showed obstruction originating due to anomalies of the ureters, bladder, ureter or pelvo-ureteric junctions. The majority showed no obstruction and were the main portion of the study. Obstructive uropathy predominated in early life (1-5 years) and was commoner in boys. The non-obstructive group was also diagnosed early in life (1-5 years) when the incidence was greater in girls in the same age. The overall incidence decreased rapidly after 5 years of age. In a more recent series of chronic, urinary tract infections with reflux (Williams & Robinson, 1961) a similar syndrome was reported with 25 per cent of cases persisting within the first year of life and 50 per cent from 1-5 years. Landon was discovering with the following frequency:

Idiopathic non-obstructive	45%
Bladder neck obstruction	25
Urethral duplication	10
Bladder diverticula	18+
Others	5

Many authors have described the association of hydronephrosis and chronic pyelonephritis with chronic vesico-urinary reflux, leading to renal pelvis atrophy and death from renal failure in some patients (Hatch, Holmes & Miller, 1942; Mason, 1950; Kline, Lindheimer & Crawford, 1963). There is still discussion as to the mode of infection of the kidneys, whether by haematogenous spread by secondary infection of the urinary lymphatics or by direct flow of infected urine from the bladder. The exact frequency and importance of these mechanisms remain undecided.

The causes of vesico-urinary reflux may be classified into the following groups (Tosapho & March, 1962):



Figure 4. Case 5.
— Microscopic cystogram, vesico-ventral reflux.
The left ureter which was dilated during
the bladder neck.

diversity. Vesico-ventral or some other bacteremia may be present. Other signs include vomiting, fever and pain in the loins.

The radiologist should examine the micturition cystogram in great detail when voiding is normal, signs which suggest reflux may be missed. In 50 per cent of cases there may be no signs on the cystogram (Williams et al. 1965). An important early sign is the discovery on cystography of a bladder neckless post-micturition (Blaustein 1962). The bladder neck may be larger than normal when with a double contour or small and contracted with or without mucosal infoldings. Bladder neck obstruction is a feature in only 25 per cent of cases (Williams et al. 1965). In the non-obstructed bladder a micturition after micturition can be accounted for by drainage of the reflux from the ureters into the bladder (Foley case 7).

If reflux is unilateral the degree of concentration on the affected side may be diminished. Thus reflux prior to severe renal damage may be due to dilated ureters from reflux from the bladder during the cystogram. The urine itself may appear more throughout the cortex compared with the normal side (case 2) or more severely unilateral or isolated disease. Signs of chronic pyelonephritis can be seen with reduction in renal size. Total scarring of the kidney and calyceal distortion

(Hudson et al 1962; Hinch et al 1962). In some patients, hyperreflexia is a feature. Anomalies such as duplication or scapula, vertebrae are easily recognized on polygraphy and may be associated with reflex (type 3 and 4) and signs of associated psychomotoric should be sought.

Measurement polygraphy can be performed with simple screening equipment. The bladder is filled to capacity and reflex may be seen at rest or the more severe cases. Measurement will reveal the degree of reflex, usually in the second phase. A surprising dilatation of the ureters may be observed compared with the case seen on the polygraph (type 3). This increases effect in the diagnosis for searching the child to triple ureteritis, such as of hydronephrosis others state more of the ureters increase.

Cases for operation are selected from those who have failed to respond to conservative medical treatment. Many cases of moderate reflex can be kept under control by medical treatment and reflex can be helped (type 3). Cases with radiological signs of chronic pyelonephritis, gross anatomical lesions or bladder neck obstruction are less treated surgically. The immediate results of treatment have been very successful, but sufficient time has not elapsed to assess the long term results. One has only to see a patient at the age of sixteen with hyperreflexia and renal failure due to chronic renal damage from reflex which has not been recognized at an early age to be convinced of the serious nature of this disease.

SUMMARY

So cases of vesicore reflex have been described from the Royal Naval Hospital, Malta, with a review of some of the literature. These have been selected to show examples of the clinical presentation and types of reflex which may be found. The importance of the early recognition of this condition has been stressed with an indication of some of the features which may be observed.

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PLEURAL MANIFESTATIONS FOLLOWING THE INHALATION OF ASBESTOS IN RELATION TO MALIGNANT CHANGE¹

By N. Lloyd Rutley

I propose to restrict my remarks to the pleural manifestations associated with the inhalation of asbestos, and their relationship to malignant change. I shall begin by summarizing the experience of three patients by way of illustration.

Case 1. Male, aged 58. I first saw him in 1960 when he showed all the features of asbestos and asbestos bodies were found in his sputum. Some years previously he had been exposed to asbestos in the course of his occupation. I saw him again in 1963 when an opacity in the right base was seen on X-ray and this was proved to be a dysplasia. He died in July 1964. I would draw your attention particularly to the backward, partially folded pleural plaques on both bases of the diaphragm (Fig. 15) also could be seen very clearly on the lateral view (Fig. 2).



Figure 1. Case 1. Bilateral and extensive pleural changes due to asbestos pleural diaphragm.



Figure 2. Case 1. Lateral view.

¹Paper read at A. Asbestos symposium, at St. St. Elizabeth's Hospital, Melbourne July 4 and 5, 1969 and published in *St. St. Elizabeth's Hospital and other Medical Journals of the Lung Association, 1969*, pages 6-11. See p. 7 and reproduced here by kind permission of the Lung Association.

Case 2. Male, aged 55. This patient was referred by his general practitioner to my Outpatients Clinic at the London Hospital in October 1961 because of an abnormal finding on a routine chest radiograph radiograph. He was entirely well at that time and had been all his life. A mass, non-calcified, radiograph taken five years before was presumably considered normal as he had not been referred for a follow-up film. The P.A. view of the chest (Fig. 2) showed areas of irregular calcification on both sides which additional X-rays suggested lay in the pleura. Calcification of this type has been pathologically described as 'bumpy' but no smaller mass calcification. The calcified pleural plaques visible above the left half of the diaphragm is of subacute nature. In the absence of previous clinical evidence of asbestos exposure, it was difficult to believe that any of the usual causes, such as tuberculosis, syphilis or trauma, keratinomas could have been responsible. All investigations proved negative.



Figure 2. Case 2. Irregular pleural calcification. (a) bumpy, (b) subacute type.

It was only at this time that a report appeared in the medical press linking pleural calcification in this type, with the sub-acute of asbestos (Lewin, 1960). I was also struck by the resemblance between the pleural plaques in the X-rays of this patient and the previous one. When questioned more closely he denied any industrial exposure to asbestos, but recalled that until twenty-seven years ago he had lived the twenty years in a house adjacent to an asbestos factory. We were able to establish the fact that the prevailing wind blew from the factory towards his garden.

Case 3. Female, aged 50. I show this patient through the courtesy of Mr Watson Thompson. She was referred to me in 1959 because of a smoking sensation in the right side of her chest, noticed particularly after exertion and when lying on the right side. She had lately become a heavy smoker. On examination

a large pleural fibrous rind was found in the right side. X-ray shows no pleural thickening over the lower portion of the right lung with a more solid area of opacity in the right lower lobe (fig. 4). At operation dense pleural thickening with calcification was found. A partial pleulectomy was done and the right lower lobe which was enclosed in thickened pleura was freed. There was no evidence of carcinoma.

She has remained well during the past six years and an X-ray taken in 1966 (fig. 5) showed that in the intervening six years she has developed characteristic 'honey hole' calcification on the left side. She gave no history of contact with asbestos but I suspect there has been exposure of some kind, possibly in a former place of residence.



Figure 4. Case 2. X-ray in 1958 showing pleural thickening especially on right side.



Figure 5. Case 2. X-ray in 1966 showing pleural calcification and 'honey hole' calcification in the left lung developed in the intervening six years.

Recent studies in the London Hospital and elsewhere have shown, firstly that pleural calcification of this type (and particularly calcified fissural pleural plaques) are linked with the presence of asbestos bodies in the lung, secondly that a history of industrial exposure to asbestos is not always obtained from one of residence near an asbestos factory or of contact with relatives working in a factory may be distant and thirdly that mesothelioma of the pleura is also closely associated with the presence of asbestos bodies in the lung. I recently had in my care a lady of 71 years of age who died from mesothelioma of the pleura. She had never herself worked in an asbestos factory but twenty-two years ago over a period of a year or two, she had laundered the clothing of her three daughters who did. This was all the contact she had had.

An important question is: does compensatory pleural calcification of this type predispose to the development of mesothelioma? There is evidence that it may do so and I shall illustrate this with a further case.

Case 4. Female, aged 67. Five years before I saw this patient in 1961 she attended another department of the London Hospital for symptoms unconnected with her chest. An X-ray of her lungs however taken at that time revealed calcified scarring throughout both lung fields (fig. 6). She was referred to me from another hospital on account of a right-sided pleural effusion which reaccumulated rapidly after each aspiration. An X-ray (fig. 7) showed fluid and air in the pleural cavity and quite clearly demonstrated that the calcifications lay in the parietal pleura. Five or years before she had worked for two months in an asbestos factory.

An open pleural biopsy was done and histology revealed carcinoma of the pleural cavity. The biopsy report showed mesothelioma. She remained unwell for some months but died in February, 1968 from extension of the growth to the pleura and pericardium. A moderate number of asbestos bodies was found in the lung at autopsy.



Figure 6. Case 4. X-ray in 1957 showing marked bilateral calcification in both lungs.



Figure 7. Case 4. X-ray in 1961 at onset of right pleural effusion due to mesothelioma.

Such patients do not necessarily develop pleural growths as is exemplified by the following patient.

Case 5. Male, aged 54. This man had worked for thirty-five years in contact with asbestos applying lagging to pipes. In 1962 he became breathless and an X ray (Fig. 5) showed evidence of bilateral basal pulmonary fibrosis with calcified pleural plaques. Asbestos bodies were found in the sputum. He died only in 1968 not from pleural mesothelioma but from manifestations of the perivascular cavity.



Figure 5. Case 5. X ray of a male aged 54 who died of perivascular mesothelioma after thirty-five years exposure to asbestos. The lungs show fibrosis.

DISCUSSION

There are several questions which need an answer but I wish to make only one or two observations.

Firstly thickening of the pleura with hazy-like plaques has for long been a recognized feature of asbestos (Kilgus, 1934) but it is curious that the 'holy-hair' calcification of the costal pleura seems only lately to have been associated with the inhalation of asbestos. In spite of working for over thirty years in the East End of London I do not recall seeing anything quite comparable until three years ago, since when I have seen several examples. It is possible that the less severe exposure encountered from environmental or domestic sources (as opposed to that met on the factory floor) may determine whether a person gets pleural mesothelioma rather than the better known pulmonary fibrosis. It takes many years for pleural calcification to appear: when it does begin to show itself it becomes clearly visible on X ray in five or six years.

Secondly the relationship between mesothelioma and the inhalation of asbestos has also only recently become established. A study of this subject has been undertaken at the London Hospital (Horsburgh, Lancel and Barham)

was 1980) and some of the effects of this work are shown in the Table. It shows one quarter of random subjects when carefully examined, asbestos bodies were demonstrated in only 25 out of 25 cases, of mesothelioma in the remaining two sections available were less than 50 μ in thickness and thus unsuitable for this purpose.

TABLE
Asbestos Bodies in Lungs
(The London Plagues)

	Asbestos bodies in lung specimens (thin plate)	%
Random subjects 112	25	24.2
Fibro-Lung disease 76	50	66
Mesothelioma specimens 25	12*	48

Only 12 per cent of pleural plaques seen at autopsy were capable of forming bodies (thin subepithelial) and therefore improved simply as index.

*In the remaining ten the asbestos were less than 50 μ in thickness.

There would seem to be a gradient of mesothelioma rising parallel with the degree of exposure. It was found that at one end of the scale lay the 25 per cent of apparently normal people. Exposure here was very slight and I suspect that the thickness of the development of new growth is also very slight. In the 12 per cent of pleural plaques visible on X-ray a history of exposure to asbestos of some sort was obtained in 85 per cent compared with 11 per cent in matched controls a statistically significant difference. Half had asbestosis perhaps less in the same category. The possibility of mesothelioma developing in this group is distant. At the opposite end of the scale lay those who had suffered a most considerable exposure in the course of their occupation and who showed the pulmonary fibrosis characteristic of asbestosis. These patients are liable to develop bronchial carcinomas and may die or in one short time for the pleural changes to appear as a local form.

Thirdly, when I suggest that pleural calcifications of this sort prefigure to a great malignancy I do not wish to imply that all who show it will inevitably develop mesothelioma, nor more than everyone who smokes 25 cigarettes a day for thirty years or more will ultimately develop carcinoma of the bronchus. We do not yet know how many will do so and only the groups of three will supply the answer.

Finally, 'billy goat' activation of the plasma may account for some at least of the examples of the syndrome herein called 'idiopathic plasma activation'.

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CLINICAL EXPERIENCE WITH ENIL

By R. Thomas May, William E. Jack and David E. B. Walsh

This paper describes our clinical experience with Enil tablets — each one scoring for one hexamere *methopropazine methide* 4 mgm. and *para*-cetylphenol, 10 mgm. — in the treatment of hay fever during the 1967 season.

INTRODUCTION

The combination tablet first became available in this country in 1966. Certain antihistamine tablets first been available in USA, under the early name under the trade name Clinin. It is similar in chemical structure to chlorpheniramine maleate (Pronil). Several reports testify to its effectiveness in the treatment of allergic rhinitis (Harris, Harding and Fyfe 1966; Garat, Landa, Balcer and Tanczos 1966; Johnson 1964). *Pseudoephedrine* is an isomer of ephedrine. It is an equally potent bronchodilator and decongestant, but less likely to give rise to the side effects associated with ephedrine (Chen 1957; Chen, Wu and Hearnshaw 1959; Simpson 1954; Donceel and French 1959; Telford and Hearnshaw 1965).

The combination tablet has already been the subject of one report on the treatment of hay fever and allergic rhinitis (General Practitioner Research Group 1967). In this controlled study it was shown that the combination was better both clinically and economically, than either of the single constituents alone. Enil has also been found to be significantly more effective than aspirin in relieving symptoms of the common cold (Koster, Riegler, Furlan and West 1965).

METHODS

Population. Thirty-five Royal Marine soldiers suffering from hay fever took part in this study. Of these 24 were recurrent cases and 1 a first case. All were treated that afternoon (night onset of attack) was taken in addition to the treatment.

Dosage Schedule. An individual bottle containing a week's supply of Enil tablets was dispensed for each case. The dose was standardized at one tablet three times daily.

Assessment. Cases were assessed on a four-point scale at three intervals — initially and at intervals of one week thereafter. They were assessed on five symptoms considered characteristic of hay fever — sneezing, running eyes, running nose, blocked nose and itchy throat. The last symptom was included to assess the degree of bronchospasm, so often present in hay fever cases. In addition, as over 60 per cent of the severity was made at each interval. At the final assessment patients were questioned on other points the results of which are also detailed below.

RESULTS

The mean scores for each symptom and the overall assessment at the three intervals are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Index of Severity of Flu-Like Symptoms

Symptoms	Interventions		
	0a	0b	0c
Swelling	1.77	0.40	0.40
Runny Nose	1.74	0.56	0.29
Runny Throat	1.68	0.11	0.08
Blocked Nose	0.94	0.11	0.04
Sore Throat	0.43	0.15	0.14
Overall Assessment	1.09	0.27	0.27

0a = maximum index was 4; 0b = symptoms

1 = mild symptoms

2 = moderate symptoms

3 = severe symptoms

Patients were asked to say how much relief they had obtained, and this was assessed on a four-point scale as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Patients' Opinion of Treatment

Amount of Relief	Number of Patients
None	1
Slight	4
Moderate	10
Complete	11

Patients were also asked to compare Eral therapy with previous treatments for hay fever. These results are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3
Comparison with previous Treatments

	Number of Patients
Not applicable	7
Best worse	1
Equal effective	10
Best today	14

These agents have been further broken down in Table 4 in respect of the various symptoms given.

TABLE 4
Painful Treatment—Number of Patients

Painful Treatment	Comparison of Effect with Painful Treatment		
	None	Some	Worse
Paracet	4	2	1
Thiopyron	—	1	—
Ephedrine (Bairyl)	1	—	—
Aspirin Paracet	—	1	—
Dexamethasone Viscous	—	1	—
Unidentified	1	2	1

Patients were also asked whether they would prefer to take the tablets rather than suffer the symptoms. All patients except one stated this preference. Thus not one experienced discomfort and said he would rather put up with the symptoms.

The incidence of side effects is shown in Table 5. In only one case was discomfort in all organs. Apart from this side effects were mild and were all after the tablets had been taken for a few days.

TABLE 5
Side Effects

Side Effects	Number of Patients
None	26
Discomfort	10
Dry mouth	4
Headache	1

DISCUSSION

Hay fever is an annoying but relatively innocuous complaint for which no real lines of treatment are available, no desensitizing or symptomatic treatment with anti-histamine drugs. Desensitization is not without danger and in any case is liable to prove a time-consuming process. The onset of anti-histamines is weak but many of them suffer from the side effect of producing marked drowsiness enough very often to interfere with normal daily routine.

Our experience with Etilol has shown it to be effective in relieving the symptoms of hay fever, particularly itching, sneezing and watery running nose. The

bronchodilation action of pseudoephedrine also resulted in expected a marked improvement in bronchograms — the incidence of this symptom was however low in our study.

When asked at the end of the trial their opinion of the tablets, 31 per cent of cases said they had obtained complete relief of symptoms while they were taking the tablets. Another 39 per cent obtained moderate relief. Eighty per cent of cases, therefore, obtained considerable relief from their symptoms.

Comparison with previous treatments revealed that where applicable Eral was considered superior in 53 per cent, similar in 36 per cent and worse in only 7 per cent of cases.

As expected, the main common side effect was drowsiness, and this was reported in 28 per cent of cases. This was, however, of mild intensity in all except one case and usually wore off. Fifty seven per cent of cases experienced no side effects at all.

CONCLUSION

Under the conditions of the trial we found Eral to be an effective, symptomatic agent for the symptomatic treatment of hay fever, with the minimum occurrence of side effects. It has proved useful in treating the bronchograms so commonly associated with hay fever.

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Letters to the Editor

Sir

PSYCHIATRIC ALTERNATIVES

A recent article (Waller, 1966) of some personal studies purports a distance ship between, *inter alia*, the burning of mentally ill soldiers in the Middle Ages and the alleged rejection of some of our psychiatric patients in 1964 (Majors and Werman, 1967).

Unfortunately, he appears to have mixed false analogies to confuse the argument. He starts (Continued) with a completely inadequate picture, either, actual deaths or mild nervous, the Psychiatrist, particularly in the Service, faces a decision whether to accept or reject the patient. Does the choice really lie between acceptance and 'rejection' — or does the solution of a clinical course of action depend upon proper assessment followed by appropriate advice, treatment and a decision whether or not to return the patient to duty? Is not to persist, and we have tried to confirm this by follow up, some Service Psychiatrists may be totally pessimistic about the chances of patients to adapt to Service life. A similar experience is reported in the Annual Report of the Royal Victoria Hospital for 1965. This refers to an increase in the cost incurred to arrive at a correct disposal of patients from hospital. The result is gratifying for many patients who might otherwise have been confined under a compulsory order to duty. The report goes on to state that "these cases could have been dealt with at first hand without ever entering hospital, whilst even in all too often the only reason for a man subsequently being registered as "psychiatric" or worse. Consideration of the patients' ability to adapt themselves to their circumstances cannot find support to suggest that they are rejected."

Waller makes it clear that he regards the patient, rejected if he is not back in duty, but if the Service is regarded as a continuum, the patient is returned to a community of which we are all members. The patient, however, returns under their administrative and medical supervision in his place of duty. This is no rejection of the patient unless the Service is regarded as an unpleasant way of life in which the patient is "forced to return." Waller contradicts himself when he suggests that Balaban and McGill are believers of the "theory of resignation" when they return alcoholics to the Service, while he calls us "hypocrites" because we advocate restriction for a majority of our patients? And of the heavy prisoners in our army registered in the U.K. in 1964, no fewer than one (42%) were suffering from alcoholic states?

Waller states that he has "firm knowledge from reliable information and personal experience" that many of the highly fit patients returned to duty "screamed, vomited or popishly shivered their way home." The question arose, perhaps, that the question was specifically asked as part of the follow up procedure about every patient returned to duty and it is no doubt was medical evaluation reported.

It is perhaps possible to note that Wallis does not go on to show that the papers, in which it is clear would not have reached an isolated nor discussed if they had been accepted by passing them the obvious advantage of a psychiatric diagnosis.

Another incident in the reported conclusion of Rowley Lee that a relationship existed between psychiatric referral and subsequent efficiency of personnel aboard ship. This personal communication was written in 1967, 12 three years after the alleged event! Of more interest aspect is the allegation of progress after the ship work for him full and competent evaluation of the patient and his associated environment. This impression is also unsubstantiated but appears likely to be based on the statement of dedicated personnel, whose desire to be separated from an unpleasant environment was not satisfied. All patients were by all criteria changed and treated competently.

Wallis goes on to refer to qualitative differences in qualitative items. Thus a psychiatrist cannot completely accept everybody referred to him or adopt a policy of universal pessimism but total rejection does he just not accept to ease the burden of the psychiatrist himself. The main meaning of the statement is not as clear as one would wish. The author would seem to favour a position intermediate between complete acceptance and partial rejection. The point which policy plays in clinical practice is also not made clear. Is he studying in clinically overlying factors when making decisions?

Writing of adapting individuals to their environment, he makes no mention of that class of people who have no wish to adapt to the circumstances in which they find themselves at a particular point in their lives. These adaptive response class consists of behaviour designed to adjust others to send them away from where they do not want to remain.

One source of confusion may be that Service Psychiatric are asked to hold two functions. In one instance they are Specialist Medical Officers who present in effect. Executive power is recommended that a person should be revealed from the Service and who can expect that advice to be carried out. Their second function is purely advisory, whereas they only have the privilege of making recommendations when it comes to military law Service the nature of his employment that incompetent and morally plastic. Wallis mentions these two roles when he refers to fitting the diagnosis to the clinical he thinks must appropriate. The ethical mislay of classifying a man as a Psychiatrist clearly because this is the correct way was is questionable.

The points raised by Wallis and by Margot and Wiersma are but part of a wider controversy in medicine, which is based on two equally legitimate points of view. One is the 'medical' fallacy which argues that the patient is a human being responding to the way he is treated and according to his circumstances and with no pretence of a solution to his problem.

The other fallacy may be called the 'personnel' error where the doctor is encouraged by himself, his profession, and outsiders who perhaps should have been to adopt a psychiatric role. As the doctor is fitted by his training and discipline to total machinery he is disposed to approach all human problems as

of illness as treating disease. Thus he makes use of metaphors such as sailing under the JAC behavior of individuals or groups such behavior, and then attempts to treat the metaphor as if it were literal reality. The worst that doctors are obliged to preserve being many rules, in 1960 people's wishes under the gaze of treating an illness has been discussed elsewhere (Waller 1965). The Annual Report from Harley in 1963 is quite explicit on the same subject. The relevant section reads: It has become evident over recent years that psychiatric investigation and treatment is often regarded by executive and regimental medical officers as a convenient way of dealing with welfare or disciplinary problems, an attitude with which the psychiatrist all too often finds it easier to acquiesce when the return to duty of an unwilling soldier is likely to be influenced by mental illness or trauma, reported AWOI, complaints from relatives, executive officers, etc.

We do not believe that mental illness is a myth. On the other hand, we do not believe that everybody with personal problems, emotional distress or disturbed behaviour is, *ipso facto*, disturbed and a proper person for doctors to treat by medical means. In spite of this we physicians will continue to avoid the patient in other ways whenever possible.

Waller's concluding remarks deserve careful scrutiny. It may well be that there who are unhappy in the Service has not generally it should be assessed by a Group which would include Welfare and Executive Officers. Indeed a Fir report interview Board could be set up for each Command or Brigade to review the proper treatment and then disposal to duty or otherwise of those who are unhappy or dissatisfied with the Service. This would be a better method of dealing with such problems than to rely on the gamble of being treated as if sick and receiving a medical discharge with no standard appeal.

Signed

David M. Marpo

Surgeon-Commander R.N.

Lynn J. P. Williams

Lieutenant Colonel R.A.M.C.

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(Lieutenant Colonel Waller was invited to reply to the above. — Editor)

Sir,

I am most grateful for your kind comments (October 1965) on my note on Psychiatric Participation (Waller, 1965).

I deeply appreciate also the interest shown by the therapists and length of the personal response by Marpo and Williams (1966) despite their emphasis that my contribution has at most been some polemical assertion in which there

even, the decision would reduce staff if I were to make a decided response to their arguments.

May I, however, please ask, for your indulgence so that I can try to clarify just two points which seem to me to be important.

Firstly, in both your Editorial and the letter by Marpo and Wermans there is the conclusion that, in the sense in which I described the terms, acceptance means an unwilling and 'rejection' an intent to defy. Such was far from my intention. At the heart of my paper I used an exemplary psychiatric procedure on clinical lines whereby a physician diagnoses the person as having a clinical problem outside the clinical unit. Either acceptance, or rejection may lead to discharge from the Service but a recommendation for continuing as part of the clinical problem is by no means inevitable.

Secondly, Marpo and Wermans say that a patient intended to defy will be under close administrative and medical supervision. But what of the 'unplanned safety in a shop without a medical officer'? He is very near the centre of all the controversy.

After their article appeared, even Marpo and Wermans obviously made a viewpoint approaching mine. So when you emphasize prevention, and state: 'Even though they and I may use different terms, let us agree at leasting towards the end of failure and earlier psychiatric participation in protecting the morale of the Services and their dependents'.

Signed

Geoffrey Wallis

Surgeon Captain R.N.

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THE ROYAL NAVY MEDICAL CLUB DINNER 1968

The annual dinner of the Royal Navy Medical Club was held in the Painted Hall on Friday 16th April 1968.

The President, Surgeon Vice-Admiral E. D. Galtwell CB CBE MD CMB FRCP(Ed) FRCP(Lond) delivered the following speech.

Admiral of the Fleet, the Lord Mountbatten of Burma. My Lords, Gentlemen, Members, ladies, ladies well be a difficult year to forget. Some might say the effort would be worth while, but I do not necessarily agree. It is true the Service as a whole — not least the Naval Medical Service — have been under tremendous Government attack, but if you pick up the fragments of the year and piece them together into a puzzle I see the term successfully the resulting picture is not without its flashes of colour.

The problems which were occupying our minds and at which I spoke at length a year ago are unfortunately still with us and I will not bore you with a long repetition, except to state the obvious — the situation and uncertainties of Service doctors and dentists have to no way changed, but I do think that the facts are now widely recognized and I do not think it would be over-exaggerating to say that as regards doctors and dentists just in the Services — and I am not referring to the overall Service Pay review — about a few months ago we were looking for death in our jaws. Now we are strenuously concentrating on the Peace and Income Board 5 paid line. We shall see.

During all these changes and rumours of changes one endeavour to keep still — not to the outside, but I think it was Churchill who said — 'Keeping one's ear to the ground is an unbridled promise to maintain for any length of time.

Despite the foregoing, one of it is clearly a confusion and all too frequently heard misconception that the Royal Navy has dwindled to a markedly reduced or even insignificant force. It may surprise and enlighten many of you to know that the total number of Officers and Ratings in the Royal Navy in 1965 was approximately 31,000, in 1934 it was 94,000 and to day it is around 56,000. What you forget then, you must face and accept the unpleasant facts of low ships and low foreign postings and ships and foreign postings will emerge, as meeting situations in posting doctors and dentists thinking of a Naval career. What then are we to offer them? Primarily we must maintain and continue to offer them a competent highly skilled medical organization to which they may take professional pride. Secondly we must and can also attract them with research, with advanced medicine with stress medicine and with the interesting and expanding physiological problems of the sea and the air. The Naval Medical Service has a good reputation as offering a good career to them — and as — all of us — not forget that the sea still covers 70% of the Earth's surface.

For us in the Naval Medical Service the mounting care of dependants in the United Kingdom makes one clinical wage. It is interesting to note that last year our so-called reciprocal agreement with the NHS resulted in over 2,000 more

Walls, certain patients being admitted to Naval hospitals there was even the *one* word, but we mean go further.

It will certainly be a firm conviction that however difficult it may prove we must persuade the Treasury — for it is they who can stand in the way — to give us full approval for viable and well equipped Waterway Units in Humber and Plymouth for our own Naval uses. But I do repeat the introduction of these medicality units has got to be pursued, planned and executed most carefully to avoid pitfalls in the early days. Thinking of the early days of medicality may I recount for a moment? At Southampton where one did not a first medicality case as a student under the helpful tough and counsel eye of the Senior in Charge — it was in those days the custom as soon as the baby had been delivered for the triumphant student somewhere to be left to bath the baby over a large bowl on his knees — the Senior meanwhile coming to an adjacent cubicle where one could sit out of difficulty. One such student — in the sixty years — as the result of his lack, gave an attempted cry for help. "Save!" he shouted. "The baby has slipped into the water!" — "Well," shouted Senior. "Pull it out." — "I can't," he said. "It's too bloody hot!" So much for the pitfalls of medicality, and now, three final points of policy. First, we must go out of our way to understand, to encourage and to protect the young doctors and dentists who come into the Navy for short commissions to have a look at us and to see the facts. Secondly, we must all of us plan for the future and stop clinging to the past and thirdly, in 1951 and last year we have been even closer aligned now with the Medical Services of the Army and the R.A.F., and with our colleagues in the National Health Service, make no mistake we can all benefit with others.

During the past year two very successful and widely attended Symposia have been held at Humber, one on Chest diseases and the other on Gall Stones, organized respectively by the Professor of Medicine, Surgeon Captain Topham and the Professor of Surgery, Surgeon Captain Wall. These clinical meetings have now become a regular and valuable means of discussion, and of both learning and meeting current trends and new developments. I know they are very much appreciated in Wexham and also in the Western region, both academically and socially.

Another highly appreciated action was the prompt despatch of a team of Naval Doctors and Medical Staff from Hants under the medical charge of Surgeon Commander Baylis to the disaster area in Italy following the recent earthquake. These disaster and similar occurrences are a sphere in which we are all keen to give our services, wherever and whenever they are required — we are ready and prepared to do so at any time.

Later this year Wardenmaster Commander Macdonald will retire and be relieved by Wardenmaster Lt. Commander Hamilton. Macdonald, as you may know, was the first ever Wardenmaster to wear a brass hat. He joined the Navy as a Probationary Sick Berth Assistant in 1937 and has climbed his career as a Commanding with both enthusiasm and determination. Another Special Duties officer in Wardenmaster Sub Lieutenant Brown distinguished himself by personal and first of all branches in the Portsmouth Command, and winning the Sword of Honour for 10

doing — a splendid achievement — I am very happy and I am sure you will share the sentiment with me in paying tribute to an admirable and untackled section of our Naval Medical Service.

And now to the pleasant duty of receiving our Guests. Although I realize there are many disappointed men, both non-Medical and Medical, including many of our own Consultants doing here tonight, I am only able to mention briefly our Official Guests on this occasion.

Our Principal Guest is Admiral of the Fleet, Earl Mountbatten of Burma (who has been from an official visit to Finland as he will be tonight). His 140,000 ft. ferretillence is, and respect for our Naval doctors are some of the many things we wish to pay tribute to him — and welcome him amongst us tonight. But have I felt a thing and appreciate him — to recall Captain Patricia Mountbatten of Burma — more affectionately known as "Lady Louise" — she had a real and lasting interest in Naval Medical Welfare, this in addition to the heavy duties and pressures she so willingly accepted for the R. A. C. (A. R. C. Ambulance Brigade) in particular, and she has served in the Royal College of Nursing, her interests and her kindness towards Service patients would ever alone, be a fitting Medical Memorial.

What can I say of Admiral Mountbatten?

I think it can well be said that his record of achievement over the last three decades is so huge in variety and its tedious responsibilities for our Navy, and will not be equalled. His wartime deeds are well known particularly his campaign in Burma and an every history book, so are his post-war services and decorations but in addition to the subsequently formidable list of widely known tasks and appointments he has undertaken, there may be some who do not know that Admiral Mountbatten is a Fellow of the Royal Society, a Colonel of the Life Guards, a Freeman of the City of London and of the City of Edinburgh, President of the Royal Life Saving Society, Governor of the Isle of Wight, an Elder Brother of Trinity House, President of the Film and Television Arts Committee of the Sea Scouts, President of the Institute of Electronics and finally might not inappropriately be a Member of the Inner Magic Circle — I should think so too!

So your presence with us tonight is an honour and a great pleasure to us all.

Officially representing our Civilian Consultants tonight are Dr. Donald Brooks, Sir Ronald Rodley-Good and Sir Paul Maitland. In all of whom we are grateful for their stalwart opinions, their wise counsel and their keen interest in both the Navy and the Service of the Royal Naval Medical Service.

The Chaplain of the College who read Gospels for us this evening is the Reverend Norman, but our special welfare is, actually tonight in the hands of the Right Reverend Monaghan Pri, Principal B. C. Chapman to the Royal Navy since 1960 and to show we are nothing if not concerned, we also welcome the Right Reverend Renshaw, the Bishop of Guildford, who was, in R.N.V.R. Chaplain during the War.

in addition his late and recent medals have well-known on television — an added member of our guests, Dr. Denis Mahony — outside his last Heart Lung Machine. When he was in the RNVR in Hong Kong with me, immediately after the war, he was receiving several medals, apparently unaware of the time and achievement that lay ahead of him in Hong Kong.

Our Master! Sir George Cross, the Director General of Medical Services of the Royal Air Force, was without — and in the 50th Birthday Year of the RAF we wish him and all his colleagues, Congratulations and Many Happy Returns.

From the Army we have Major General John Douglas, who most ably represents their Medical Director General. Also with us is Major General Serphous, a most hospitable friend to many of us in his post at Millbank.

The Dental Services of the RAF are represented by Air Vice Marshal Kippax, and, still in the Dental world, it is a great pleasure to have with us Mr. Thomas Ward, the Dean of the Faculty of Dental Surgery and also a Consulting Oral Surgeon to the Royal Navy. We in the Royal Navy welcome Surgeon Rear Admiral Bill Pinner, who has just recently taken up his appointment as Director of the Naval Dental Service. We wish him a successful and happy commission. I would like to extend a warm welcome too to Sir Charles, who is with us tonight as President of the British Medical Association.

Also as Official Guests we have Mr. Harold Edwards who, as well as his many other hospital appointments, has been our President of the United Services Section of the Royal Society of Medicine. He is most welcome — as was is Sir Geoffrey Todd — a long, private hospital at Millbank in the summer, is one of the pleasant rewards of being MDG.

Many RNR Medical and Dental Officers are present (of whom Surgeon Captain Glover is the senior serving Officer) and are very warmly welcomed. We are most grateful for the help these doctors and dentists so willingly give us, and the most our men of the RNR, the more one is aware of their enthusiasm, and there we wish, unqualified and loyal support to the Navy — we are lucky to have them.

So James Pasternak-Ross, who is with us tonight, must have some considerable experience from his days as a Surgeon Sub-Lieutenant in the Navy during the First World War — it is good to see him here.

The President of the Royal Naval College is Admiral Sir Maurice Lubbock — we have him here as a Guest in this capacity — it is an added personal pleasure as he has been a very good friend for many years, since what might superficially be termed our last earlier days — in fact, and to Captain, Huxford we say Thank You for the loan of this magnificent setting for our Dinner — its atmosphere even in your year after year.

Although I said I was only going to mention Official Guests, I cannot let the occasion pass without saying how very pleased we all are to see Derek Searle. Perhaps during these tonight — I hope he is having a great evening, and I am willing to bet from a friend that at this particular moment, he is enjoying himself a great deal more than I am!

I would like to thank Virginia Chapman Morgan and Mr. Chapman for the hard work of organizing this Society — and it is hard work.

Thank you too to the Royal Marine Band, which I know is much appreciated. And by no means least, our thanks to all the Staff who have given us their time and their efforts.

And now to conclude — at last — may I wish all of you Health and Happiness in the year ahead, may I ask the Members to rise and drink a Toast to our Class.

Reviews

Chemical Processes in the Human Body, Vol. 1, 1965, 1965. Pp. 100. Edinburgh and London: E. & S. Livingston, Ltd. Price 35s. 6d. + 6s. 6d.

O. Kops

The book has an accompanying volume, *Genetics of Endocrinology*, a standard primary text on endocrine systems for the practitioner who needs a knowledge of general endocrinology. Thus it deals of systematic nature with the physiology of the endocrine system, and also with the latest research in the field of the endocrine system, which is a very recent development in the field of endocrinology.

In the volume the text has been thoroughly revised and a number of new chapters added. The bibliography, a useful feature, is included in the previous volume. The book is a very good, up-to-date, and readable text for the practitioner who needs a knowledge of endocrinology. It is a valuable addition to the library of the practitioner.

Chemical Processes in the Human Body, Vol. 2, 1965, 1965. Pp. 110. Edinburgh and London: E. & S. Livingston, Ltd. Price 35s. 6d. + 6s. 6d.

The book is a very good, up-to-date, and readable text for the practitioner who needs a knowledge of endocrinology. It is a valuable addition to the library of the practitioner.

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The Physiology of Human Respiration, Edited by G. D. Bickel and A. L. Bickel. Pp. 100. London: Adapted Press. Price 1965.

The book is a very good, up-to-date, and readable text for the practitioner who needs a knowledge of endocrinology. It is a valuable addition to the library of the practitioner.

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1517

muscle. Many points in the use of cinematography and finally its position in regard to the future of psychology, are suggested by individual cases.

This is a carefully book abundantly illustrated by drawings, photographs, X-ray-graphs and diagrams and I find the technical questions and the nature of the individual types of reflexes, etc., of a book which is long written and read and of the theory. J. B.

Neurophysiology. By F. L. Seidman. MD PhD (Harvard). Pp. 226 + index. Historical, edited by Dr. A. H. Cannon. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1929. Price 12/6.

THESE 226 pages, written by a world-wide authority on the subject of nerve fibres, and providing the latest and most important views of this subject, provide very complete information. Seidman's treatment of the general physiology of the nervous system is of the highest quality, and it is not surprising that numerous points that are of the highest importance (especially in the study of nerve fibres) have been included in a book of this size. The author's treatment of the general physiology of the nervous system is of the highest quality, and it is not surprising that numerous points that are of the highest importance (especially in the study of nerve fibres) have been included in a book of this size.

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A SECOND PORTFOLIO OF COLOR PHOTOGRAPHS. By R. T. L. BARKER, CHM. FRSC. and F. C. BARKER. (Printed by the author.) Pp. 100 and 100 figures. Edinburgh and London: R. & J. Leighton Ltd. 1929. Price 4s. 6d.

It should be recalled that this is a second portfolio and not a second edition of the first book published four years ago. The reason is that the purpose of issuing the second portfolio and therefore of issuing the subsequent editions, the value of the material in the portfolio was not a complete picture of the subject, as previously, and it is a further extension of the material in the first portfolio. This is a book that should be read by all who are interested in the subject of color photography and the application of these colors to the study of the human eye.

Very few of the colored photographs are repeated in the second portfolio which is a further extension of the first portfolio. The reason is that the purpose of issuing the second portfolio and therefore of issuing the subsequent editions, the value of the material in the portfolio was not a complete picture of the subject, as previously, and it is a further extension of the material in the first portfolio.

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The various contributions have made a highly commendable effort within their limits, but it has been a bit weak, if hardly giving the proper amount of security, have suffered relative to the principle of "some degree" within modern and other scientific nature.

Of various data are given, it is a comprehensive book, not due to modern data in the scientific of modern and past due to the degree of time in the time of properties in the first instance, but it does not covering the relevant data in it in the past. The discussion seems more as the one for instance of a few years, rather than 15. There are the advantages in such biological work, beyond that in the first few years and only. It may be characterized as follows:

CRP is a subject in the, whereas in the recommended quantity does have which now stands at half the usual level and in the altered area for physical spatial expression, which stands at more than usual level when the properties can be shown to exist.

In spite of these relatively minor shortcomings and in spite of its leaning to CR position in its treatment and light nature, this is a valuable book. In spite of relatively minor errors already mentioned and by reason of over 150 references the book in discussing the various chapters make it a valuable and for progression, reading. CCH

Table 5. *Observations, Recommendations, Status, and Note* (1. Health, 2. Mental, 3. Social Status)

Figure 1

Murray, J. G. R., A. H. I. C. Atkinson, M. E. Dyer, J. E. Crockett, J. Chantel, Y. M.
 (2004) *Journal of Ecology*, 92, 1000–1010.

Abstract

Abstract

Source: *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 1994, 89, 1194-1204.

1992

Re. *Shirley Ann Thompson v. Commissioner*, 11 T.R.M. 200, 201.

For the purpose of this study, the following hypotheses were formulated:

100

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It is suggested that the following reference was omitted from A. Peng-ge Wen and Minshu Sheng's (1999) work (see Table 1):

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THE EDITOR

JOURNAL OF THE ROYAL NAVAL MEDICAL SERVICE
RN HOSPITAL, HASLEM, GOSPORT, HANTS.

Editorial

CONGRATULATIONS

First and foremost, express congratulations and best wishes to Surgeon Rear Admiral E. B. Bradbury CM DSO on his appointment as the new Medical Director-General (Naval).

As we go to press, we are not yet certain whether he will be supported by three or only two Surgeon Rear-Admirals. For the sake of the Branch we trust it will be the former.

SYMPODIA

In the autumn of next year there is to be a further Symposium of Naval Medicine to be held in London on the lines of the previous one in 1965. Although it is almost 12 months since planning must start to begin. The aim will be to present to our medical colleagues and students just what Naval Medicine has accomplished what it has to offer and what it can look forward to in the future.

Dates and details are not yet available. When they are they will be promulgated but meanwhile will the chairman, the ladies and the salt horns please consider possible contributions and ideas for papers, discussions or exhibitions. This will be your Symposium.

Recent Clinical Symposia have produced excellent papers and discussions. It is hoped to include selected papers and extracts in the Journal as far as resources permit. We must, however, ensure a balanced presentation. One of the major difficulties is that of translating the spoken word from tape to text. So few speakers today are prepared to produce a paper for publication and yet give their address in an informal and rambling manner.

However, many of our medical officers are scrupled to serve as isolated wing cases and no doubt opposition being kept informed of the latest trends in clinical subjects from the reports many of whom are our own Civilian Naval Consultants.

It is hoped that the next two numbers of the Journal will include selected papers from the Symposia on Maritime Trends in Nervous Diseases and Gastro-Intestinal Disorders held recently at the Royal Naval Hospital, Haslar.

Symposium on Cholelithiasis

A Symposium on Cholelithiasis was held at the Royal Naval Hospital, Haslem, on February 5, 1968 and it gives us great pleasure to reproduce extracts from some of the comments prepared from our tape recording of the proceedings.

Participants

Surgeon Vice-Admiral E. D. Caldwell, C.B., O.N.P., M.D., ChB, FRCP (late St. Louis), The Medical Director-General (Naval)

Mr. E. H. Franklin, FRCS, Senior Lecturer and Surgeon, Postgraduate Medical School, London

Dr. F. Arvey Jones, C.B.E., M.D., FRCP, Physicians, General Medicine, Hospital, Gastroenterologist, St. Marks Hospital, London

Professor L. P. Le Queens, M.A., D.M., M.Ch., FRCS, Professor of Surgery, Middlesex Hospital, London

Professor A. J. Harding, F.R.S., FRCS, Professor of Surgery, Charing Cross Hospital, London

Dr. C. G. Whitmore, F.R.S., D.M.B., Radiologist, Middlesex Hospital, London

Surgeon Rear Admiral E. B. Beedley, C.B., O.N.P., Medical Officer in Charge, Royal Naval Hospital (Haslem, welcome) the participants and introduced the Medical Director-General (Naval) and 'Audience'

INTRODUCTION

Surgeon Vice-Admiral E. D. Caldwell: One night just after midnight, I was the duty doctor in a general practice when the bell rang and a girl asked me to come immediately to her mother who was in great pain. When we got to within 100 yards of the house, I could hear adult screams which in no way made me any happier, but fortunately the relatives were able to tell me that the mother was having a gall-stone attack for which the doctor usually gave her an injection. This helped me enormously! I told you that because two days elapsed and were wasted uselessly upon my memory: one was the sound of intense pain and the other, the pattern of the pain as opposed to a spasm of pain. Professor Harding Rains has said recently that the old axiom that a typical gall-stone colic is a fast, but fairly infrequent attack of the stomach is rather tending to lose its pertinence. We shall probably learn more about this later, but it does interest me that we are in a Naval Hospital discussing gall stones.

THE ANATOMY OF CHOLELITHIASIS

By Professor A. P. Herringbone

About 8 per cent. of gallstones appear to consist of pure cholesterol 10 to 15 per cent. of pure pigment and the rest are mixtures. In addition to cholesterol and pigment almost every man contains sodium carbonate sodium phosphate and some protein and it is probable that these substances play an equally important part in the growth of stones. The same biochemist who specialises in gall stones groups them under metabolic causes: carbonates and stones and I should like to consider these findings in rather a new light and talk about them in a roundabout way.

Start

First there is the question of diet and its effect upon the formation of gallstones. One of the first interesting things that has been discovered in the last 10 or 20 years is the high proportion of pigment stones in the common bile duct to be found in the Japanese and the Koreans. Agricultural workers and farm workers, in fact, get pigment stones but professional doctors and clerical workers get mixed stones of cholesterol and bile pigment. This curious change which occurs with immigration in status can be compared with the changing incidence of bladder stones. When data on bladder stones were first collected in the Norfolk and Norwich Hospital around 1900 all the bladder stones were discovered in young children but now things have changed. Children with bladder stones are no longer seen only a few old men. There is plenty still only one place in the world where bladder stones in children are still to be found and that is in north-eastern Thailand, which has a sort of 'hot belt' with the stones occurring predominantly in young boys. As one moves into the western areas of the world one finds that urinary tract stones are renal stones. Changes in composition and distribution of gall stones makes one think that there must also be some dietary changes. In Colombia for instance it is the poorer classes who tend to get gallstones and it is interesting to find that their diet is very low in protein and vitamins and very high in calories because they consume a high proportion of rice which which is about the only foodstuff that is readily available.

The golden hamster is one of the experimental animals in which gall stones seem to be formed very frequently and if hamsters are fed on a diet deficient in protein and vitamins and high in calories stones are formed. Copenhagen workers have shown that cholesterol formation can be stopped by adding sodium chloride and even copper sulphate to the diet. In addition a Japanese worker produced gallstones by feeding animals on a diet deficient in vitamin A. Naturally all this constitutes research into what might be the chemical mechanism of stone formation.

Cholesterol and bile salts

Cholesterol is broken down in the liver to form related bile salts which are responsible for helping the cholesterol to come into solution as cholesterol is a completely insoluble substance. How do they do it? Well one of the interesting things is that the formula of sodium cholate is very similar to that of soap there

parallel with detergent which are amphipathic. The tail is hydrophobic or hydrophobic, and the (HLC) is hydrophilic. A hydrophobic detergent can thus be a surface active detergent even if a surface-active amphipathic detergent begins to change and the molecules rather than hydrophobic tail (kind of spherical shape or some a laminated apparatus). This grouping is called a micelle. The hydrophobic parts are themselves inside and the hydrophilic parts outside. Micelles of detergent begin to form at a point of low critical concentration so that it is not necessary to use much detergent in washing up water to be effective. This phenomenon also applies to bile, and at a low concentration bile salts undergo micelle formation which enables them to dissolve anything which is insoluble in water and this is how the cholesterol is actually carried in solution. It is possible to determine the cholesterol-dissolving power of bile salts in any concentration and temperature. However if you try such experiments, at 37°C nothing happens. Commercial scientists are well aware of the need to provide the correct water temperature in order to obtain the best results for certain types of washing using a particular detergent and this is also true of body detergents: the bile salts which work best at 37°C and at this temperature readily take up cholesterol in solution. One also finds that there is a critical ratio between cholesterol and bile salts of about 1:1.1 and if a solution develops in which more cholesterol is being offered to the bile or the liver is not producing sufficient quantity to qualify its bile salts then the cholesterol is likely to come out of solution in crystal form.

Hypocholesterolemia. It was always thought that the hypocholesterolemia that occurs late in pregnancy was one of the causes of gall-stones. High serum cholesterol levels do occur, but as late Mr. Peary of the Midwestern Hospital many years ago showed that it is almost impossible experimentally to get an excess of cholesterol in the bile except by feeding it into experimental animals by many complicated routes and that cholesterol is deposited only if an operation is performed and the gall bladder is damaged. This work together with our knowledge of groups of people with very high serum cholesterol levels who are not specially prone to develop gall-stones makes one feel that hypocholesterolemia in such a case of gall-stone formation, lowered concentrations of cholesterol may come in the gall-bladder if there is much reduction of cells of the mucous membrane as can happen in inflammation.

Bile salt reflux. Cholesterol can equally well come out of solution in an equilibrium, in which the bile salt content of bile is decreased, for example by a high serum and cholesterol level which may upset the normal ratio. Again bile salts tend to be relatively reabsorbed through the wall of an inflamed gall bladder and this also may lead to reduction in bile salts. Of course it is then not necessarily simply more formation. The other factor in inflammation does upset cholesterol solubility in pH for the bile has a certain amount of buffering power and an elevated biliary duct may result in a fall in pH which will allow cholesterol to be precipitated.

Bile pigment. We have a much tendency to think about bile pigments are held in solution but we know that bilirubin, which is normally insoluble in water is

compared with glassware used to form the soluble compound. Much more experimental work requires to be done for we should like to know the actual physical constant solubility behavior is shown. In addition, as the glassware, but indurite has proved to be a difficult substance to work with. Liver damage from any cause — obstruction, infection or trauma — or overloading of the liver with pigment as the result of infection or bleeding diseases may permit insoluble pigment to appear in the bile.

'Seeds' for crystal and stone growth

Now it must be obvious that in any system where the concentration of a substance becomes critical, almost anything will act as a nucleus to stone formation. There are all kinds of crystal seeds and one of the earliest found were epithelial cells and biliary casts. Following the famous Danish Professor stated, in 1938 that all gall-stones were formed on a seed of insoluble bile pigment and that cholesterol crystals were then formed around it. Any foreign body can cause stone formation, particularly in the common bile duct. The Japanese and the Koreans I mentioned often suffer from parasite infections and one of the causes for chills in the region of stones which are most commonly found in the common bile duct. Billed my plan and estimate that may also enter the common bile duct in form a stone and I have had stones with worms in their nuclei. Bacteria may also act as 'seeds'. *Sclerosed type, cholesterol and xanthine, xanthine and even an amorphous have been found in stones.* As you are a Naval cadet, you may remember that while it was Lord Minto's time who said that a gall stone is a 'concretion' credited to the memory of the expression 'within it' he probably got the idea from the Frenchman LaFont who remarked that 'the pearl is the brilliant macrophage of a worm'. Indeed, in 1900 Sir John Blood Stinton using such an illustration in his book 'On Faith and Science in Surgery'.

Seeds

Another aspect of stone formation which is worth examining is that of stone. Nuclei completely suggest for gall-bladder than it always some residual bile, and the bile coming from the liver after the gall-bladder has emptied enters the gall-bladder and is mixed with some of the concentrated bile that has been left behind. But actually during the last 3 months of pregnancy and possibly in other conditions some of the concentrated bile bile or mix with the fresh incoming bile and a layering effect occurs with bile of different concentrations, pH and specific gravity so that an interface develops between the two. It has been shown that cholesterol and bile salts diffuse at different rates across the interface with disturbance of the bile salt/cholesterol ratio and precipitation of cholesterol crystals which in time may act as 'seeds' for stone formation.

Microfolds. Microfolds are tiny amorphous granules which, even in the presence of protein, grow into larger spheres and continue to produce the cauliflower type of calculus. They begin as amorphous paracrySTALLINE bodies but as they begin to come together they undergo change value and then present a pure crystalline appearance. This happens with both calcium carbonate and cholesterol and may

explain how tubules, vesicles and lamellae form their shells. Although these animals have the appearance of being built much, together in 'mushroom' form, they have a striking crystalline structure on cross-section which is rather unusual. Sometimes, however, if the solution is aqueous rather than alcoholic, the stones look rather like a ball of wool. This is the 'myelin' form of cholesterol with surrounding lipid.

Crystal growth in animal tissues. Recently, a perfectly hexagonal gall stone was analysed by Dr. Don Kosterer (Laval University) using x-ray diffraction at University College. It was found to be a crystal of calcium carbonate within an envelope of the gall bladder. They discovered that it consisted of three different types of calcium carbonate: 'aragonite', 'vaterite' and 'calcite' — and asking also, Dr. Don Kosterer (Laval) suggests that one of the reasons why stones, including mixed stones, grow is, because their crystals have the same kind of mathematical lattice the faces of the crystals being together. Currently the crystal lattice of cholesterol is mathematically similar to the crystal lattice of various calcium carbonates, but that of the bile pigments has yet to be worked. We are going to hear much more about stone growth, in the future, from the crystallographers.

DISCUSSION

Professor Le Gendre: Thank you very much, Professor Mann. We have a few minutes for questions and discussion.

Mr Robert Campbell: Is it well known that in cholesterols or 'cholesterol' gall bladder, polyepid cholesterol deposits fall off and form the nuclei for a stone?

Professor Mann: Yes, it is so. In the common type of chronic cholecystitis the mucous membrane is quite red, and this yellow pigs of cholesterol form on the central wall of the gall bladder. This was always thought to be a metastatic precipitation but it is now considered that it is a type of inflammation. It is perfectly true that bile polyepid growth may act as nuclei and crystals form around them.

Professor Le Gendre: I thought your observations about layering in the gall bladder were interesting because it is similar with a subject in which Dr. Whipple and I have been interested for a number of years. I refer to these interesting gallstones that have lamellar structure. It is very common to get stones dead in the stomach and equally common in cholecystography to see different concentrations of dye in the two levels and this presumably is an expression of the layering phenomenon you were talking about.

Professor Mann: Yes, this would be so. Layering of bile is a phenomenon which requires much closer attention. The first experimental work was done in Sweden and I think, Canada.

Professor Mann: I was very interested to hear what Professor Mann said about the role of cholesterol. How much is that due to the protein that gets added to the bile and how much is it due to blocking of the cystic duct as the result of inflammation and consequent depression of the gall bladder of the bile duct? This is the first question and the second question is this: is there any relationship between the lam-

source of gall stones in the more bile duct, and choleliths which seem to be a condition caused by so many different factors — real, tubercles, chemical, drugs, hereditary and so on?

Professor Koser: The biggest theory was that all gall stones were formed as a result of calcification, and a prominent student caused by inflammation and it may well be that, in many cases, the gallstones happen because of swelling by calcified cells in such a nature. It is not the only cause and I have shown you that we have hopes to realize that a "real" case be started in all kinds of ways. I have only seen, and carefully enough this week, seen a stone that blocked by what appeared to be a mass of calcified stuff — there were no stones there — and I have never seen this before. It is to be remembered that calcification occurs in the small intestine the whole time so it also must occur naturally as well as pathologically, in the gall bladder. As for choleliths this is very likely. Besides some damage in the liver there is blocked, certain molecules, can form in masses only a few and I think the idea here you are going to reveal some interesting work on the various "poisons" that are being fed to the liver continually so decrease their effect upon the bile salts output, cholesterol and bile acids. We do not know the answer yet. Certainly we are needed for all kinds of poisons besides the various in ligandous effects?

Mr. Edward Williams: Have you found any relation in gall stones in people who have had a vagotomy?

Professor Koser: No I haven't experience of enough cases to allow me to comment about gall stones following vagotomy. A lot of work is being done on the function of the gall bladder, pylorus and sphincter of Oddi by Mr. Cooper & team in Bristol and I have completely working with me at the moment on the subject. I think that the only way of settling the subject of gall stones and vagotomy is to start measuring, using biliary secretion and measuring the degree of mass. This has been proposed for many years in France and although many British surgeons have upon what are called the biliary dyskinesias I think we shall have to look at it again.

Professor Le Garrec: Mr. Foulds does your clinical experience lead you to believe that you see gallstones after vagotomy?

Mr. Foulds: I don't think they are more common certainly I think they do occur with the stone which sometimes follows a Polya gastrectomy. In these circumstances I have seen gall stones form very quickly. However, I don't think they are particularly common after vagotomy but we shall have to wait and see.

THE MANAGEMENT OF UNCOMPLICATED GALL-STONES

By Dr R. Avery-Jones

Life is a matter of calculated risks and one of our functions as physicians is to attempt to weigh the risks associated with various medical conditions and sometimes also with the risks of treatment medical and surgical. For the purpose of this communication we are particularly interested in the silent gall-stones and the gall-stones associated with some biliary dyspepsia. It is in this group that there is most controversy about the need for surgical treatment. I would like to give you a personal example. My mother died when she was aged 82 from a respiratory infection. Forty years before her death she had had a primary infection and an abscession, pyelitis demonstrated the presence of calcic dyspepsia gall-stones packing her gall-bladder. She had no symptoms referable to the stones, neither before or since, and nothing was done about them. Obviously in her case, the disease was fully justified by her subsequent freedom from biliary distress. Nevertheless, we know there is a risk associated with the silent gall-stones and how likely she was of escaping complications, and how justified was my father about accepting the calculated risk on her behalf.

I show your attention to two sets of figures in this respect. There is an excellent study by Graham Wilson and his colleagues in 1944 who followed up 112 cases of silent gall-stones over a period of 10 to 20 years. During this period 38 of the 112 had biliary colic and five developed jaundice. Cholecystectomy was performed on 24 patients. Since your age I studied the incidence of gall-stones by analysing the autopsy records of Hammersmith Hospital. The notes related to the years 1941 to 1950 and we found the cases of gall-stones in about 1,000 autopsies and analysing these further we found that in 36 of the 124 patients (a 1/3 death was the direct consequence of the presence of these gall-stones. The proportion of 1/3 is about the same as found in the Swedish series from Uppsala some years ago. Nine out of the 36 Hammersmith deaths were due to cancer of the gall-bladder most of which with certain exceptions were caused by carcinoma, even from obstructive jaundice resulting from stones, and six as a result of operation. This gives us a picture of the magnitude of the risk associated with gall-stones, roughly a 3 per cent risk of cancer of the gall-bladder, 15 per cent risk of death precipitated or accelerated by gall-stones, and a 25 per cent risk of subsequent colic. I suspect that the figures were lower for the years 1941-1950 than they are now. It is remarkable in fact the way the deaths from gall-stones fell both in the First World War and the Second World War and shows so clearly that an efficient society does not reduce the incidence of gall-stones.

With this overall picture of the risks of gall-stones, one has to consider when one is doing this in advising patients. The size of the risk is just about the same as the risk in life associated with cigarette smoking and clearly with the figures just before the public there is a remarkable difference in taking action. It is our responsibility to weigh up the risk in individual cases and advise our patients

accordingly. I would therefore like to discuss some of the considerations which one has to take into account.

The first is the personality and commitment of the patient. There are some patients, particularly business and professional men with long lives, who have to travel and who wish to protect themselves against the hazard of suddenly being taken off in an emergency (and call it an emergency) plane. To them inquiry as the absence of any reliable medical help is the obvious necessary answer and can be arranged to fit into their timetable. On the other hand there are patients who are extremely nervous of operations and anaesthesia and are very unhappy about the idea of surgery. Provided that there are no other special medical considerations, one is obliged morally to take a calculated risk on their behalf and to advise an operation. The second consideration is the general medical condition. Some patients already have another disease such as diabetes and such complications of gallstones as cholecystitis, pancreatitis or peptic ulcers present an appreciable additional hazard. There is then a strong case for encouraging these patients to have the gall-stones removed under good conditions of health and without the added gallstones which might arise from complications. On the other hand if the general health is perfectly good, as in the case of my mother, and there are no special considerations as far as the nature of the stone is concerned, it seems reasonable to take no action. Thirdly the characteristics of the stone has to be taken into consideration and it is likely that perforation of the duodenum and the passing of stones into the intestines with the risk of intestinal obstruction is particularly likely to happen with the large solitary gall-stone so that one should exercise a considerable bias in favour of cholecystectomy for large solitary stones even if they are completely asymptomatic. Again patients with multiple small stones are at greater risk from biliary colic than those with medium sized gall-stones packing the gall bladder who are the patients I personally tend to leave unless there are other considerations.

As far as the risk of cancer is concerned, there does not appear to be any special correlation with any particular type of gall stone and the distribution of association with cancer is the same with single cholesterol stones as with pigment stones and mixed stones. Patients very often ask if there is a risk of cancer and the answer is that it is about 1 per cent. Cancer, however, occurs in the older age groups; in other words, it is a small risk which one can off set against the risks of an elective operation. Admittedly, I think that 1 per cent is a high figure for absolute cholecystectomy which in good conditions patients I would have thought would be around 1 or 2 per cent.

In another group of patients, those with fatty dyspepsia and food intolerances, it is very necessary to make it quite clear that surgery is not going to benefit such symptoms. A number of these patients, in fact, have had a lifelong tendency all their lives. As children they were fussy and were easily upset by citrus fruits and rich foods and this is often passed on to adult life, sometimes with a tendency to migraine. These patients seem to have a greater liability to produce gall-stones

and having developed them and having had them taken away, they continue to get physical symptoms. These symptoms I suspect are probably due to a lower enzyme deficiency with failure to decompose by digestion. Laine just had known just about to have a beneficial effect in some babies parents and in the small class of phenylketonuria which is now known to have a beneficial effect upon liver enzyme activity. I have also found that an oral bile preparation called Devalyl taken with the main meals may be useful in reducing the bilious discomfort parents may otherwise suffer.

Finally, the old concept of gall stones affecting women who are fat, 40 and 45, no had already been said is quite untrue and we ought to consider what advice we should give to the young gall stone patient. Gallstones in women under the age of 30 are not uncommon. They are very often are diagnosed and in one sense, Dr. Wicks working in our department found that paper about, appendicitis, renal colic, muscular pain and usually nervous had been the presenting first diagnosis. Quite often the pain may be rather typical, tending to come on at night and may then in certain situations abate. A number of cases of gall stones in younger women are associated with previous pregnancy, but not all of them, and those who have been pregnant are more likely to suffer severe attacks of biliary colic in the early months after delivery than during pregnancy. Generally speaking the attacks of pain tend to be rather short and tend in the younger people concerned pain being particularly frequent and recurring as often as the appendicitis is in the right upper abdomen. The stones are often multiple or rather translucent and I have no doubt that some of them may be moved from time to time. The one case of the mother studies is about ten women to one man and in these younger patients one should exercise a considerable bias in favour of surgery even if the stones are silent.

Is there any place for medical treatment? It has already been demonstrated that gallstones can be passed and this is a very real phenomenon that one ought to keep in mind. There is just a recent suggestion that cholecystitis, which we use as the treatment of the patient associated with pancreas, will lower the serum cholesterol and it might conceivably reverse the tendency to gall stone formation. I don't think it would dissolve stones but it might reverse the tendency and I think that this is a treatment we have obviously got to learn more about. How serious anything to dissolve gall stones? There are apparently made about such treatment in different countries and a few years ago I had a patient from abroad with biliary colic. X rays showed very typical gall stones and I advised cholecystectomy. He said he would not have an operation and that he would return to his country and meet a famous doctor who was able to dissolve gall stones. Well, you go back, I said, "and have your gallstones dissolved?" He went back and some months later a letter arrived with some news, accompanied by a letter in which he wrote: "There are the stones which I have passed and which you had needed an operation." So I had the stones sent up to the laboratory and they were found to contain silver, so they had obviously come from the golden path of the famous doctor.

DISCUSSION

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander Rivers: I should like to present the case of a 51-year-old man who in 1948 was brought down the M.I. when he was seized with lower abdominal pain which he described as "coming and going" accompanied by a sense of pins and needles. He got off the latrine and passed urine without relief. The pain then became constant and he visited his general practitioner who noted that he was sitting. His wife then declined and he passed light stools. He was investigated in the out-patient department of another hospital. Liver function tests suggested an acute hepatitis and he began to complain of lassitude and weakness and continued pain. This continued through the summer. He was re-investigated in November by which time he was more acute, his urine and stools had returned to normal and he had his liver function tests although he felt little better at home. Over the winter of 1949 and the spring and summer of 1950 he made a slow return to normal health. However in November 1950 following a further attack of much more severe abdominal colic, confined to the right lower quadrant, he was admitted to hospital where he was, confined to bed, rapidly raised a liver palpable two fingers below the costal margin and a palpable spleen. Cholecystography and cineography revealed two gallstones and a non-functioning gall bladder. He was referred to our surgeons who felt that he would benefit from cholecystectomy and laparotomy was performed on February . . . The gall bladder was found to be dilated containing two stones. The liver was covered with small nodules, these were dilated veins in the falciform ligament and the spleen was enlarged in size and a half times normal size. The gall bladder was removed and a liver biopsy performed. Histology revealed the specimen to be uniformly involved by a carcinoma growing with coarcted central veins and a generalized infiltration predominantly lymphocytes in character.

We would like to ask the Panel's views upon the question of operation in the presence of hepatic carcinoma?

Professor Le Queux: Thank you Dr Rivers — may we ask you a question first? What do you think was the cause of the original gradual jaundice when he was coming down the M.I.?

Surgeon Lieutenant Commander Rivers: I don't know. We had only two other hospital's results to go on, but they did show apparently quite raised aspartate levels and I think we were suspecting their diagnosis of hepatitis. Whether his carcinoma was present at that time is not, and this was a further attack of hepatitis on top of that. I'm afraid I am at no position to state.

Dr Avery Jones: I think there is an increased risk of jaundice in patients with chronic hepatitis and if they pass over to biliary colic and provided that the liver function is reasonably compensated, I think that surgery is indicated and I would certainly encourage it.

Professor Le Queux: Now Dr Avery Jones's paper is open for discussion and questions.

Dr Avery Jones: I would just like to give you the follow-up of the patient I looked up with. He came back to this country with obstructive jaundice due

you?" I said: "Ah, so your gallstones have caught up with you?" But it wasn't so. She was spotted up by Mr Rodney Blomquist who found a very large hybrid cyst with daughter cysts going down the bile ducts as well as gallstones in the gall-bladder!

Mr Franklin: If I could just tell you about a very recent case with hepatitis and gallstones. This was a woman who presented with colic and jaundice and gallstones were present. We weren't altogether happy about the diagnosis because of changes in the blood chemistry but in operation the last gall-stone and I removed the gall-bladder! She had also rather an odd looking liver and I took a piece for biopsy. This was returned as, believe it or not, definitely not like a hepatitis. Anyhow she made a perfectly good recovery, the jaundice settled and we looked around for a cause. The only disease we could imagine was the PII which she had been taking for 10 years and we came to the conclusion that this must be an example of one of the ill effects of the PII. However, only yesterday I found that the last gall-stone with her husband in connection and that her husband has now got jaundice so since we got nearly home the PII for that, a doctor look as if it must have been a hepatitis with concealed gall-stones!

Professor Le Quesne: Dr Avery-Jones just is making things very complicated. I wonder if I could take issue with you on this question of the extremely symptomatic gallstones as it did make us re-evaluate this week that it was likely you would detect your suspicion in this direction and I came across a very remarkable study that was published the other day last on 1,600 patients, who had been followed up in Sweden. A good many of these had had their gall-bladder removed but there were 760 patients who had gallstones on X-ray diagnosis alone and for one reason or another received no treatment within a year of the diagnosis. Now the interesting thing in these figures agreed almost exactly with yours, but in the next 10 or 11 years, 53 per cent of these patients had to have surgery. I thought the really interesting thing they brought out in other studies was the very great difference in mortality following surgery for gallstones in people over the age of 60 as compared with those under the age of 60. They also found that of those who had an operation within one year of diagnosis, only 16 per cent had stones in the common duct whereas in those people in whom for one reason or another operation was deferred for more than a year, 77 per cent had stones in the common duct.

They found an even more remarkable figure I think and I'll state it in its most challenging way first, if you compare the operative mortality for patients over the age of 60 with stones in the common duct, it is 30 times the operative mortality of cholecystectomy in patients under 60 without exploration of the duct. Now it's hard to say that operative mortality for simple cholecystectomy is only 0.13 so 50 times 0.13 will only get you to five. I wonder if I can challenge you by saying that I think the problems you are facing with the patient who has got symptomatic gallstones provide a reason why you should remove the gall-bladder. Mr Franklin, will you give me any support in this now?

Mr Franklin: It is rather difficult, because I think everyone takes delight operating upon a patient who has had gallstones discovered on routine investigation. There's got to be in the way of symptoms and isn't very keen on an operation. I would never urge them to have an operation unless the stones were small and Charcot's might give trouble later on, or if the patients are very young, when I think you feel they are bound to get trouble sooner or later. I think it is fair in they are young and have small stones. I would agree with Professor Le Queux: "If they're older, with big stones which are not giving symptoms, I would think I think, agree with Dr Avery Jones."

Professor Le Queux: What about Dr Avery Jones's proposition about one big stone?

Mr Franklin: Well I think in an older patient I would not advise removal.

Professor Le Queux: Dr Avery Jones, do you think you should ever remove a gall bladder without doing a hernia first?

Dr Avery Jones: I think that is a very good question. The possibility of one diagnosis is appreciable and I have seen several patients with antibodies of the necks where they have had a quite unnecessary laparotomy because they have had pain in the back. Cholecystitis showed itself as a pain in the back, got me diagnosed and I think that is a very good point because sometimes the gall stone may be a bad hernia and there may be some other pathology. The case is perfectly true of course, with benign hernia and cholelithiasis disease.

Mr Franklin: I intended to mention this in my paper particularly but the stone which Professor Raine didn't mention was this very old hernia type of stone which is a real clinical entity. The patients have these gall stones removed and aren't any better and I think that you will all remember that a few years ago when hernia hernia first got on the map, it was very common indeed in most surgeons who said they had just done a hernia repair and then they would add with a smile that the patient had had his gall bladder removed a couple of years before. Well I think anything is a very bad thing in surgery and more pain. Indeed, I have had the opposite experience of having to take gall-stones out of patients who had had a hernia repair two years previously. The really important thing is that gall-stones being benign, without cholelithiasis and cholelithiasis all occur in the same type of patient and quite a few patients have the whole lot and sometimes you may be aware of that and not really see whole of these conditions in causing their symptoms.

Surgeon Vice Admiral Calvert: Professor Raine did suggest that sugar might now be considered a factor in the aetiology of gall stones and I wonder if Dr Avery Jones as a physician would like to make any observations on that?

Dr Avery Jones: I seriously encourage patients, where there is any question of a mixed cholesterol to cut down sugar because there is some evidence that it does alter the solubility and may diminish the tendency of stones to form. The answer is no, I do. I think it is a good point in management.

Surgeon Captain Watt: I would like to ask the Panel whether the behaviour of the gall bladder on cholecystography is not a factor to be taken into account when

medical management is being considered. For instance would the Panel agree that a small, sparse gall-bladder which occupies usually might be a point in favour of cholecystectomy whereas the long, hypertrophied gall bladder which is unlikely to cause trouble of biliary colic might warrant a more conservative policy?

Professor Mann: I've forgotten the word but the French have taken out gall-bladders that are long and dropped down alongside the vertebral column even if they have no stones in them. We have really got to do much more work on permanent and gall-bladder function and perhaps in the end we may come round to the French view.

Professor Le Querier: I think perhaps there is one other point which might help Surgeon Captain Wan and I in London because the paper I read to you myself again. Dr Avery Jones also covered this point. These people tended to see whether you were more likely to have symptoms if you had gall-stones with an obstructed cystic duct or gall stones with a patent cystic duct and apparently there is not the slightest doubt that one with an obstructed cystic duct is much more likely to cause symptoms. Therefore if you had a symptomatic patient with a non-functioning gall bladder the risk of that patient getting complications in the next few years is over twice as high as in a symptomatic patient with gall stones in a functioning gallbladder. So possibly it would suggest that if the polypectomy can contract they're better off.

Dr Whitacre: Perhaps it only suggests that there is a stone in the cystic duct waiting to go on.

Dr Avery Jones: In Holland they talk about the 'Yo Yo' gall bladder, which is rather Captain Wan's type. I think where the gall bladder is actually seen going up and down in the X-ray. I would have thought that activity on the whole was a sign for not doing anything rather than for operating.

STONE IN THE COMMON DUCT

By Professor L. F. Le Queux

Stones in the common bile duct at first in the majority almost invariably expand in the gall-bladder and pass down the cystic duct into the common bile duct. We are less certain as to what happens to stones once they get into the common bile duct. As Dr Whipple showed in his X rays some of these stones can pass into the duodenum the event being usually, but by no means always, accompanied by an attack of pain. Yet it is quite certain that many of them do not enter the duodenum and it would be very interesting to discover what are the chances of a stone passing down the common duct into the duodenum once it has entered the duct. We do not know this, but we do know, however, that it does not necessarily mean that the stone has passed into the duodenum just because a patient has a severe attack of pain—perhaps accompanied by jaundice—while stone in the duct seldom can remain in the common duct for months or even years thereafter without giving rise to further symptoms. It would be quite wrong to think that whilst they are there these symptomatic attacks are not causing harm, because they can cause changes both in the common duct and in the liver. The common bile duct dilates and its walls become thickened, the surface of these two events greatly assisting future infection superadded during cholangitis. Possibility of more suppurative and the frequent effect, of stones in the common bile duct on the liver. Liver biopsies taken from patients with longstanding evidence of stone in the duct reveal degeneration of the liver architecture with extension of bile pigment within the liver cells. The damage becomes more severe if, as already mentioned, infection is superadded. In these circumstances a liver biopsy will show the bile ducts filled with pus. This is an extremely serious complication of gall stones, and the operative mortality of patients with stones in the duct associated with cholangitis is very markedly higher than in those in whom infection has not supervened. It is these two changes in the liver brought about by longstanding stones in the duct, that is to say actual liver cell damage and infection, which together make stone in the common duct such a dangerous complication of gall stones, quite apart from the fact that it may be an extremely painful and unpleasant complication for the patient.

Now, if stones can remain in the duct for many years without giving rise to symptoms, one must not be drawn to the problem of the diagnosis of the condition. In the typical first book case, the diagnosis is straightforward and characteristically the complication occurs in a patient who has previously had a dyspepsia and who then gets an attack of severe, so called bilious colic, associated with jaundice which is typically transient and accompanied by dark urine and pale stools. There are one or two points to mention about the features of these attacks. First of all I was extremely interested when Admiral Childwell drew our attention at the beginning of this meeting to the fact that the patient he now had experienced pain. This term bilious colic is very misleading. It is extremely misleading that a patient with a stone in the bile duct to have a last colic, by which I mean a pain which comes and goes in waves. Almost invariably the patient has constant pain

which fully accords with a phrenic, namely, like this for a number of hours, and then recedes. It is not surprising that this is so because a true solid mass through sustained contraction of smooth muscle and there is extremely little smooth muscle in the urinary tract. Except for that surrounding the lower end, that is almost none in the common duct so that this term on which we were all brought up, urinary catheter is in fact misleading. The other important feature about the pain is that it is most commonly in the epigastrium, it is typically central in the abdomen and may radiate out under other atypical maps. This again is in contrast with the text book description of the pain which particularly isolates under the right costal margin. Radiation through to the back is a much commoner feature.

In many instances the clinical picture is atypical. Sometimes may not be a feature of the illness, or if it is, may be so slight as to pass unnoticed and the patient may merely present with one or more severe attacks of upper abdominal pain. One is then presented with a differential diagnosis of stones in the gall-bladder, possibly pancreatitis, possibly peptic ulcer, there are a great number of conditions which it may mimic. Similarly, pain may not be a very marked feature of the illness, indeed a pain be absent and the patient may present with jaundice. One is then presented with one of the classical differential diagnoses of jaundice, the differential diagnosis of a jaundice with jaundice. Thus just to make it difficult, sometimes not only is the jaundice partial, but it may have unusual biochemical features, characteristically the biochemical features of stone in the duct will be that the raised serum bilirubin will be accompanied by a raised alkaline phosphatase, normal levels of the transaminases and very little rise in urinary urobilinogen. But this isn't always the case, and I have recently had a patient with a jaundice partial, which certainly got worse, a perfectly normal alkaline phosphatase and perfectly normal transaminase tests. A lesson must not then draw to me if it could throw any light on the jaundice and indeed it did for it showed the cause of the jaundice to be a gall stone lying in the intrapancreatic portion of the bile duct emphasizing the difficulties that there may be in the clinical presentation of a stone in the common bile duct.

It is of course, as Dr Whitcomb has pointed out, unwise to not draw X-ray evidence of a stone in the duct and we are therefore left with the situation that, as a considerable number of patients, on clinical and simple radiographic grounds the diagnosis of stone in the common bile duct may be very uncertain. This has been realized for many years and led to the very wide indications for exploration of the common bile duct that were recommended by a number of surgeons. The classical indications for exploration of the duct are a patient who has been on a jaundice, a patient who has recently had severe pain and a patient who has a dilated common bile duct at operation. Because of the difficulty of making a correct diagnosis these indications were extended and in many text books of surgery you will see (1) 11, 12, 13 indications for exploration of the bile duct, the answer of which is that apart from the classical indications, every patient with multiple stones in the gall bladder should have his duct explored because of the possibility of there being a stone there.

There is no doubt that this policy greatly increased the interest of women from the common bile duct and diminished the workload of medical men in cholangiography but it by no means solved the problem. The workload of medical men following exploration of the common bile duct continued high and even with very wide indications for exploration of the bile duct ligors, published by the leading clinics in the world indicate that there is still an incidence of residual stones of somewhere around 7 to 10 per cent. Another drawback to the policy is that it converts the surgeon to exploring a very large number of ducts which in fact contain no stones and so a number of recorded were some were found in the common bile duct as only around 10 per cent of all the ducts that were explored. Taking in the other way round, no stone was found in 90 per cent of the ducts that were explored. Now it is perfectly true that a single exploration probably does not add significantly to the mortality of cholangiography but it does add to the morbidity of the operation and a certainly does add to the length of the patient's stay in hospital and clearly this should be avoided if possible.

With the development of modern radiographic techniques and the refinements of modern operation saving the problem of stones in the gall-bladder is one which to a large extent, has been solved except for the type of problem that Dr Avery Jones was discussing. The main difficulty being the surgeon in the field, I would suggest, not whether there is a stone in the common bile duct and whether, having explored the duct, he has in fact removed one completely and successfully operation and removed all the stones, leaving no man that requires a second operation after exploration of the bile duct than it is in patients who have never had their common duct explored. How then do we know when to explore the duct and how do we know we have explored it successfully in the case of operations? A great number of different techniques have been applied to this problem in the last five years, one being the use of intraoperative cholangiography which Dr Whitcomb has already mentioned. There is no doubt that this technique can show stones in the common duct but it is not completely dependable and an apparently normal post-operative intraoperative cholangiogram does not, in my opinion, mean that that duct does not contain a stone.

There is also the issue liable to be considered. What the surgeon wants to know is not that there was no stone in the common bile duct yesterday, but that there is not one there today, when he is operating on the patient. This is important because I think it is very likely that some of the stones removed from the common duct were not there when the statement gave the statement, they were pushed into the common duct from the gall bladder by the surgeon when packing the gall-bladder. There are therefore good theoretical reasons for believing that intraoperative cholangiography is unlikely to be the final answer however good the media we may get.

Without doubt the single most important technique that has been applied to this problem is that of operative cholangiography which involves the introduction of radio opaque material into the bile duct in the time of operation. The patient has to be positioned over a special box on the operating table one which the X-ray

operation can be executed. The dye can be injected into the common bile duct by a needle, but the easiest and most certain way of doing it is by insert a catheter through the cystic duct into the common bile duct, great care being taken to ensure that no bubbles are not introduced into the common duct at this time. Once the catheter has been inserted it is important to tilt the table to the right, through about 5° to 10° to draw the shadow of the common duct clear of the spine. Every detail of the technique is important if good results are to be obtained consistently and there are also important details in the interpretation of the films, details which greatly depend upon an appreciation of the normal anatomy of the common bile duct. As shown by the studies that Mr Leonard Hunt made at the Middlesex Hospital the main portion of the common duct is a wide tube with thin walls, but just as it reaches the duodenal wall the wall of the bile duct thickens with the result that the terminal part of the common duct has a very narrow lumen. This sudden narrowing of the lumen which is accompanied by an appearance of beading, is perfectly normal, but as years gone by it was frequently interpreted as a stricture of the lower end of the common bile duct.

There films are actually taken the first after the injection of 2 to 3 ml of contrast medium, the second after 4 or 5 mls and the third after 7 or 8 mls. In order to be judged as normal an operative cholangiogram has got to satisfy five criteria. Firstly, there must be a completely free flow of contrast medium into the duodenum even on the first film. Secondly, the "bead" or narrowing between the main portion of the duct and the short length of its very low terminal portion must be clearly seen. Thirdly, the duct must be of normal calibre as already mentioned by Dr Whitcomb. Fourthly and obviously the duct must not contain a filling defect, which might signify a stone, and fifthly there should be no excessive retrograde filling. I particularly draw your attention to the appearance of the first film when a very small quantity of dye becomes mixed with a moderate amount of dye has been injected, it frequently happens that the lower portion of the duct is obscured by the medium in the duodenum and none of the surgeons who first employed cholangiography dismissed this technique as not being helpful because they took these first films after injecting 7 or 8 mls and accordingly were unable to see the lower portion of the duct.

I am not going to put before you in detail evidence of the value of this examination except just briefly to say that I think it is now conclusively proved that by the use of this technique provided that it is surgically interpreted an increased yield of stones will be obtained from the common duct, but what is the more important supplementary exploration of the common duct is not done excessively. My colleagues and I followed up nearly 100 patients who had had a normal operative cholangiogram, which was read as the most satisfactory not to explore the duct. These patients were examined a year or more after operation, when they all had extensive cholangiograms and there was no evidence that a single one of them had a residual stone. In the light of this and other evidence I think we can refer the examination as being the best evidence we have at the present time as to whether or not a duct contains a stone.

If the duct contains a stone, clearly a stone is expected. I don't intend to go into the technical details of this system surgical procedure in any extent, but wish to stress those points. Firstly the operation not only involves the removing of stones, but also involves demonstrating beyond doubt that there is a false passage into the duodenum. The usual way of doing this is to pass a probe. However, the probe may easily stick in the ampulla and when pulled through the duodenal wall, appear to be in the lumen of the duodenum when it is not. Since it is important to be absolutely certain that the biopsy is in the duodenum, the easier and more certain way of doing that is by feeling the cuff of the ampulla around the emerging bougie.

Secondly, persons who have a dilated common bile duct with multiple stones present special difficulties, and one that has to be certain that stones are not left in the lower end of the duct after exploration. Generally speaking, two techniques may be used to overcome this problem, one particularly championed by Mr. Capper is to direct as to ignore the stones at the lower end of the duct and demonstrate the common duct in the duodenum. In his hands, cholecystectomy appears to be a successful operation. Yet there is a considerable number of surgeons who would tell you that the operation is followed by an unacceptable incidence of various complications and the alternative procedure on which I personally prefer, is to open the lower end of the common duct through the duodenum and explore the duct from both directions. There is no doubt that one cannot be certain about the exploration of the common duct simply from above if there are multiple stones.

The third point poses the question how can we be certain that our exploration has been completely successful? Well, after carrying out explorations it has already been suggested the duct should be washed through and then I think the final post-exploratory cholangiogram should be carried out. I would like to emphasize the difference between these two types of cholangiograms. The pre-exploratory cholangiogram is performed to tell us whether or not the duct contains stones, that is to say whether it does or not need exploration. The purpose of the post-exploratory cholangiogram is to tell us whether or not the exploration has been completely successful. This is done by first passing a T tube in the common duct and flushing it through with a large quantity of saline to get rid of bubbles before again injecting contrast medium. This is not such a sensitive examination as the pre-exploratory one for the important reason that even if the duct contains no stones there are the duodenal contents always be demonstrated. This precaution is because there is contrast and space at the lower end of the duct and so for practical purposes the only criterion upon which one can rely is the presence or absence of a filling defect, as opposed to the free criteria of the pre-exploratory cholangiogram. However, this is a technique which undoubtedly will show residual stones in contrast and at our hands, in something like 1 or 2 per cent of cases it shows us that we have left a stone behind.

DISCUSSION

Barryon Commander Fooley: To illustrate the problem of multiple stones in the

common duct, this is a lady of 35 who presented in January 1964 with recurrent abdominal pain and jaundice, and cholangiography revealed a non-functioning gall bladder. At operation a thick walled gall bladder was packed with stones and a very obvious common duct contained considerable stones which proved difficult to demonstrate by pre-operative cholangiography. After removal of the gall bladder over 100 stones were removed from the common duct, but many were unaccounted and defied extraction. The transduodenal approach to the sphincter not advocated by Professor Le Quang was carried out and residual stones were removed. However, post-operative cholangiogram revealed residual stones in the hepatic ducts and an free flow into the duodenum. The residual stones were removed from the hepatic ducts and finally the last stone at the tip of the common duct which laid at flat against through the duct wall necessitating a cholecystoduodenostomy. The final cholangiogram through the T-tube was then taken freely. A cholangiogram two months later was normal and she remained fairly well until she returned to my again in September 1967 with recurrent abdominal pain, but no jaundice and it was thought that perhaps she had developed further stones. However, thorough investigation, including intraoperative cholangiography revealed no evidence whatsoever of disease of the biliary system. I would like to ask the Panel to comment upon the management of this case.

The second case is a 31-year-old male who was referred from the Orthopaedic Department with pain in the back and who had had recurrent bilateral colic pain for the previous three months. When first seen, he looked very unwell, but the only abnormal physical signs were a liver enlarged to three fingers breadth below the costal margin and marked tenderness in the right upper quadrant. The relevant investigations at that particular time were a many dilative phlephogram the creamy urine being 20 units and creamy over the creamy days to 200 to 300 units. Shortly after admission he developed jaundice and collapse and a catheterization of the lower lobe of the left lung. He was found to have a non-functioning gall bladder and brenchoscopy was also performed as we were thinking in terms of a possible carcinoma of the bronchus. However, he then became much more rapidly jaundiced, the extensive phlephogram continued to rise and laparotomy was therefore carried out. He had a very large inflamed, calcareous gall bladder, packed with stones and an enormous mass in the porta hepatis obscuring the common bile duct. The cholangiogram proved extremely difficult to perform and did not demonstrate the common duct terribly clearly. In fact, it was necessary to do a direct needle puncture of the common bile duct. There was no pancreatic flow at all and biopsy material from the hepatic ducts and liver revealed squamous of the ducts with invasion of the liver. The post-operative period was fairly short and unremarked by the steps referred.

I would like the Panel to comment on the last patient who was full of medical problems at operation, certainly in finding the common bile duct and then in dealing with what we found and interpreting the operative cholangiogram. *Professor Le Quang*: There are two or three comments I would like to make about the first case. One of the involved problems of biliary surgery

in the removal of mucus from the hepatic ducts it can be extremely difficult and frustrating. My own feeling is that if you have small ducts exposed low down in the common duct the only way you can be certain of getting them out is to open the duct from below as well as from above and I think that that is a potentially safe operation provided that you put the incision in the duct at what you might call

'its attack' opposite the opening of the pancreatic duct. I personally always like to get a finger up the pancreatic duct at the end of the operation. We call this operation 'sphincterotomy' which is of course a great misnomer for if you do a T-tube cholangiogram after the operation the radiologist will not be able to tell whether you have done a sphincterotomy or not. So you haven't seriously I think interfered with the physiology of the lower end of the duct, but you have made your exploration much easier. The other comment I would make about the case is that I personally am not very happy about the use of a long beaked T-tube. Norman Cameron Watt? Why I explain this. I don't think it was made clear that there was really not large incision at the end of the common duct which had actually crested through the wall and after this was removed, there was a hole through the wall of the duct at its junction with the duodenum so that it was then necessary to re-implant the common duct into the duodenum and not therefore put a long limb of the T-tube which we don't of course actually use through the incision.

Professor Le Guenec. Just to be really provocative I would just wonder if there is any logic in the belief upon which I know we were all brought up, that putting tubes across incisions, confirm any benefit on the patient. I've always put short T-tubes in the low common ducts that I have re-implanted into the duodenum and I would be very interested to know what Mr Franklin thinks about this. As regards the second case so far as I know the problem of carcinoma of the intra-hepatic ducts is an insoluble one. The thing which interested me very much is the way in which the alkaline phosphatase in this patient rose apparently long before the serum bilirubin and was disproportionately high. I think for instance, which nobody understands, this is a fairly characteristic biochemical pattern with carcinoma of the hepatic duct themselves and papillary tumours of the lower end of the common ducts. Finally why this should be nobody knows but it is quite characteristic.

Mr Franklin. Well I was most interested in these two cases and I agree that the treatment of carcinoma of the ducts in my hands, is a most interesting exercise always impossible to deal with. I think as regards delay and difficulty at the lower end I have been very impressed with the course of cholangiocholecystomy provided that the common duct is dilated. I think that is the important thing. As for making sure that you have really got an incision into the duodenum, the only caution that which I know is to put a gum elastic catheter into the duct and distend it with saline making sure that nothing is coming back.

Dr Avery Jones. I would like to confirm the point about the alkaline phosphatase it rose early with duct obstruction and I am particularly on the point that this is with the papillary carcinoma when the alkaline phosphatase may be quite high with no jaundice and I am sure that this is a useful diagnostic point to keep in mind.

Professor Baum: One of the other holey points shows the electron phosphorium but I have found it that it runs early but it sets late. That means that if you follow the observation you will see the electron levels falling but well past that the electron phosphorium may remain elevated for even a number of months.

Dr Whitcomb: Only one short comment. When we first started in to transcapillary electrophoresis in 1955 one of our earliest runs was a case of carcinoma of the common hepatic duct. The diagnosis was made by the technique and when the patient came to surgery they knew what they were going to find. I think that possibly if the technique is improved, liver transcapillary electrophoresis might have a place here and possibly save the patient an operation.

Professor Baum: Do you think we might have some questions? It is a very very big subject.

Mr Robert Campbell: I should like to make a plea for the abolition of the T tube. I think that people have got into a habit of inserting T tubes into common bile ducts but if you do not a T tube you should cut it down to the point where it hardly looks like a T tube. I personally prefer a plain tube because I think the damage done to the bile duct by pulling out the T tube is very considerable and I would like to know what the Panel would think about abolishing T tubes? The other question concerns the greater concept of Oddi's sphincterism and control of the sphincter of Oddi. The French are believers in the fact that, in some people, a primary spasm, or disturbance of the ampulla can occur and that the resulting spasm may play a part in the formation of gallstones. This, I think, is the reason why they are so keen on accurately that if they feel that the pressure is high they will then carry out transduodenal sphincterotomy. I would also like to support what Professor Le Queux said about excluding air bubbles from the bile duct when doing an operative cholangiogram but this is easier said than done and I have noticed that French surgeons who are keen on this technique seem to take few precautions against air bubbles and then spend hours looking for imaginary stones. Even in the hands of the experts it appears extraordinarily difficult to exclude these air bubbles.

Mr Franklin: I can see my paper gradually disappearing! I would never use a T tube in ordinary circumstances. I am always rather difficult about monitoring this at all and particularly in the context of the very friendly nature of our discussion and with Professor Le Queux on my left. I think the T tube is used because everyone has been brought up to do it and on commensurate grounds, you would think the failure to use a T tube would be based on fear or folly, performance a failure or at least very strong confusion. In fact, if you shoot the duct immediately put a drain down to it and keep it there overnight, bile appears for the first day or two you cut it well inside the bile duct. The soft T tube probably does no harm but the fact that when you take it out you leave a natural hole in the common duct, even in some cases give rise to stricture but I won't give you my paper will you?

Professor Le Queux: I am the whole believe what Mr Franklin says about T tubes. I was brought up to use T tubes but I think I would agree that the tendency is

most cases, is that they are unnecessary. Probably sustained in reality, I shall start going down and I shall let you know if there's trouble! As regards the experience of Osho syndrome, I find this extremely difficult because I don't think I have ever seen a patient whom I was convinced was having symptoms of some thing wrong with the lower end of the bile duct, and in whom it was absolutely certain that in some stage in the proceedings there had not been a stone through the duct. In other words, I don't think you can get a primary fibrosis without ever having had a stone in the duct.

Mr. Pankaj: I will get rid of another bit of my paper because I don't believe in it either!

Professor Dr. Gellera: As regards our biliary, having been taught by Dr. Whitcomb, I don't think it is actually true that it is more and more done, I think it really only involves attention to one or two very small details. I think Dr. Whitcomb would agree that in the last six or seven years, biliary have ceased to be a problem for us. Dr. Whitcomb, I can't remember seeing biliary as operative cholangiography for several years.

Dr. Avery Jones: The diagnosis of biliary dyskinesia which is so popular in France, we don't ever seem to meet. But, nevertheless, I think it is possible for biliary pain to arise in patients even in the absence of stones and I see it in occasional cases in the biliary population some of whom may get an appreciable amount of discomfort in the upper abdomen following a fatty meal and yet they have no X-ray evidence of stones. The other group of patients we should suspect ourselves about is the patients with depression. I would just like to add that I do believe in compulsory cholecystectomy, even though I am not a surgeon but I will admit that possibly they don't give symptoms until after a gall bladder is removed and that was the point I was making about the safety valve effect of a diseased gall bladder.

Dr. George Bagshaw: I'm in General Practice and one of my patients was sent home with T-tube drainage. The drainage sent her out at about 10 o'clock one evening saying that the tube had gone. We examined the bed but there was no tube there and I asked what had happened. She said that she had felt some movement and getting up her nightdress she saw the tube starting to disappear and it was washed so opaque and all. I rang up the hospital and explained what had happened, but it was evident that they disbelieved me. As a result, they took her in and two days later she passed the tube, plus opaque stones. I would like to ask the Panel if they can tell me exactly what happened?

Professor Wain: One explanation might be that the tube was lying in an abscess close to the stomach, which had sloughed into the colon or small intestine. We have seen people who have passed gallstones per rectum which had been wrapped round an abdominal aortotomy and of course, waste can be passed in that state way. It does give me the opportunity to tell you of the most extraordinary case of a woman who suffered from a biliary duct for many years and eventually, she had to enter an appendix before she could stand social functions and so the stone in one of them was nothing further that could be done. A macroscopic showed a

huge filling defect in the common bile duct and at operation we found two or three yards of ribbon gastric in the common bile duct. She got better and before she left hospital, we asked her to tell us more about how she coped with her second pregnancy and she said "I used to hang up the beds with ribbon gastric".

POST-COMPLECTEXTURE PROBLEMS

By R. H. Frinklin

I had had a lot of my paper had been gradually whittled away during the course of the day. I was going to talk about — and I'm very glad I haven't got to do so — the reason why a process may not be completed after a perfectly straightforward cholecystectomy. These cases are rare and Dr. Henry Jones has touched on them. The second group are those in which there is associated but unrecognized pathology and the gall stones are just a red herring. Again I think we have dealt quite adequately with this group. That leaves me with the third group where, there, has been an operation for gall stones and damage has occurred or a cause has been left behind. In this country this is a comparatively rare occurrence and none of the cases, as you all know, come from elsewhere. No one has very many cases of their own, they are all cases referred to them and the actual figures are therefore difficult to arrive at. Maybe I think regards them as being about two cases per thousand cholecystectomies but the important thing is that of these cases, something like a third of the patients will die fairly quickly and of the remainder about another third will die as a result of various attempts to cure their trouble, so it is obviously a very serious condition and one which ought to be avoided. Now I thought that I would talk about a few representative examples and then discuss the cause and treatment and when I think it is even more important, the prevention of these injuries.

The first case is a woman who came under my care in 1952 following exploration of the common duct and T-tube drainage. She had been suffering from attacks of cholangitis. We made further enquiries about the operation and found that in fact it had not been the straightforward cholecystectomy we had imagined. There had been an abscess at the junction of the cystic and the common bile duct and when the surgeon had removed the gall-bladder he had found a gap and the abscess duct had been passed over a T-tube which the surgeon had left in for some three weeks. Her cholangitis settled down and although she had recurrent attacks I did not see her again until 1956 when she was produced. I explored her and found that the common duct had previously disappeared and the duodenum was closely attached to the liver. On separating the mass of dense fibrous tissue I was able to reveal two holes, the entrance of each hepatic duct into the liver. I made a Roux-Y anastomosis and because there was already a lot of fibrosis put a T-tube into each hepatic duct and removed them there for two months. Thus if I may digress is the real indication for a T-tube and the aim of leaving it in for some time was to make sure the fibrosis would become remodelled and not contract further. This patient lived for a further 15 years but she had recurrent attacks of fever and slight jaundice and also developed intertrigo dying eventually at the age of 71 ofillary carcinoma and hepatic cancer. Although she lived quite a long time, she had a lot of ill health, all of which was attributable to the original injury and it does illustrate the fact that whenever repair is used there is always a tendency for the scars to contract and for cholangitis to occur.

The first patient's story was a more sad one. In 1959 she had jaundice which lasted for two weeks and then settled. In 1958 she had very severe pain and jaundice and in the time she had an operation. We haven't any details. The gall-bladder contained stones and was removed and the common duct was explored but no stones were found. She made a good recovery but in January 1961 her jaundice returned and continued until June. In September when I saw her we discovered on taking her history that her two sisters had had trouble with their spleens and one had died. On investigation we found she had congenital cholangiocystosis. She was deeply jaundiced and at operation I found a stricture in the common bile duct which I repaired over a T-tube and I took out the spleen. Although we left this T-tube in for five months when we eventually took it out she became jaundiced again. In order to stop the continuing fibrosis I put a vitreous tube into the main of our system which was surrounding what had been the common duct and immediately she became free of jaundice and got perfectly well. This was in 1962. Two years later in February 1964 the tube was still in position and she was well and symptoms free with a healed wound. Six months later the tube had disappeared although she was conscious that she had passed it. Now in 1968 before this meeting I took an ultrasonics cholangiogram which shows everything to be perfectly normal.

A man of 55 had a cholangiocystosis because of two large stones in the gall-bladder. The common duct was normal and the operative notes state that the ligature was placed at the junction of the cystic duct with the common bile duct. I do not know whether this was a planned procedure to avoid the cystic duct stump syndrome those which we have found a pain duct and which has led to the rather dangerous advice and it may have had something to do with the patient developing jaundice on the second post-operative day. An intravenous cholangiogram showed no opacification of the biliary system. At operation a dilated common bile duct was found. Aspiration revealed white bile and the duct was explored from the duodenum. A short stricture was found; a 3 mm polythene tube was drawn through the stricture and a separate T-tube was introduced through a separate cholecystostomy just above the upper end of the plastic tube. He survived for a time and later that year the T-tube which had been removed showed good passage of dye into the duodenum. The T-tube was removed, he then developed a biliary fever. Two months later he came under my care with a persistent biliary fever. At operation I removed the polythene tube from within the common bile duct and although we could only pass small bougies into the duct from the duodenum we were able to dilate it and felt that there was no justification for further interference at that time. However he continued to have recurrent attacks of jaundice and eventually an exploration was found to have done fibrosis similar to that found in the patient previously mentioned and the only thing that seemed feasible was to cut another procedure in this case a Y shaped modified tube with one limb going into each of the hepatic ducts and the vertical limb into a Roux en Y loop of jejunum. The patient got on extremely well after this. He had no further case plasma and after the tube disappeared a fluoroscopic showed the duct patent and outlined by air.

These problems were said for a time but were great up because they became blocked with debris and I think that our patients in these cases are, been due to the instantaneous use of Zincol Zincol, as you know, not only stimulates the amount of bile secreted but also reduces its viscosity and it does seem to prevent these problems blocking up. Normally, anything in the way of an obstructing tube is to be deprecated, but there is a place for them where damage already exists.

Another type of problem is illustrated by the next case, a patient of 63 who in 1948 had a cholecystectomy for cholelithiasis. The common duct is reported as having been explored with sound via the cystic duct clamp and nothing was found. She remained perfectly well until 1961, 13 years later when she started a medical ward with problems associated with pyrexia and anorexia. Cholangiogram showed a positive intrahepatic stagnation test and an intrahepatic cholangiogram showed a stone in the common duct. After treatment for the existing stone of her pancreas I operated on her and found a grossly dilated common duct with a single large stone at its lower end and a very hard, gray impella. Now this is the sort of patient in whom a cholecystectomy may be a good procedure and, provided that the common duct is widely dilated, I do not think it does any harm. I therefore carried out this technique in this case.

The next patient was a man, again in his 60s, who had had a cholecystectomy and two days later became jaundiced. On re-exploration he was found to have an injury of his common bile duct. A T tube was inserted and his condition immediately improved. He had the T tube removed and when he came under my care in 1960 he had a biliary duct. Exploration revealed a localized stricture and it seemed to be a very straightforward thing to excise the stricture and repair the common duct by end to end anastomosis. He remained well for one year, then became jaundiced and a pre-operative pyelonephritis, cholangiogram revealed a stricture in the common bile duct with a suggestion of obstruction in the left hepatic duct. At operation we considered the possibility of a carcinoma of the duct but frozen section did not show any malignancy. A T tube was put into position and the patient still remains in. We have taken serial cholangiograms and a rather significant feature is that the common duct now seems to be occupied entirely by the tube at the material point so that we are still not certain that this patient has not got a neoplasm.

These cases demonstrate the extremely dangerous position of the patient even on injury of the common bile duct, has been sustained and I think it also tend to say that whatever the method of injury, there is always a great risk of recurrent illness and even though the patient may remain quite well, recurrent cholangitis is very common and he will never be quite free of the risk of some severe complication. So we are faced with the importance of trying to prevent injury to the duct, not of not overlooking any stone. There is no question that operative cholangiography has done a great deal to prevent leaving a stone behind but it does not in any sense remove the importance of drainage and because an operative cholangiography will not always show 'gut' or 'hard' and it may well be necessary to explore the duct even when the X-ray seems perfectly straightforward. Also

this device must be done by an expert to avoid the false sense of security which allows minor leaks to be ignored. On no account must it be regarded as absolving the surgeon from the responsibility of taking suitable care, and I will refer again to the very great risk of putting in a gross chronic infection into the peritoneum and making sure that fluid can run freely through out the drainage and that some drainage. Professor La Garret's point about lifting the shoulder of the capsule is a good one, but I have not always been certain that I could do that. If the duct is very dilated and a lot of pus is present, it is often quite a good idea to pack the common duct with tape when little bits of pus can be found adhering to the surface as it is removed.

Then comes the question of the T-tube which in my mind is not really necessary. It is of course of great value 30 days later in finding the most that ought to have been found at operation? If you can be certain that the bag is empty it is safe to remove it. The trouble is the common duct is filled with encrusted masses, or up very small nodules and very fine corpus and probably taking in only the outer walls of the common duct. The drain must first be introduced right down to the common duct. All this is extremely important and I never publish the technique for the very reason that unless it is done with the greatest care and skill it will create the risk of bile peritonitis. I therefore never put the forward except as a very intelligent method. I think the drain should be a soft rubber tube, not plastic, instead of any sort and out of the nature of the duct should be left long enough to make two holes of the drain and draw it up exactly to the required position. The tube will not come out spontaneously but will be perfectly easy to remove whenever it is desired to do so which is usually about five days after the operation.

I would like to stress the importance of putting in the drain accurately and making sure that it does lie where it is meant to lie, otherwise this can be a very dangerous method. We have followed up a great many cases and there was one instance in which we could attribute any complications to not using the T-tube with the exception of one case. When we looked into this, we found that the operation had been carried out by a distinguished surgeon who was not a member of our team and who was rather taken with the idea. He had not so far attached the drain to the duct at all but had put it in under hopefully where he thought it ought to be and he had also used a very small drain. The patient came in on leave but she had to be in hospital quite quickly again. That was the only case in a long series and it is significant that the method had not been properly applied.

Some surgeons of the common bile duct following a rough forward exploration may possibly have serious difficulty because of the T-tube. We all know of situations which have occurred following the most careful technique, and Munroe failed to find a means to get out of cases of stricture of the common duct. It is quite prepared to admit that this is a very rare complication of the T-tube but I think it is a perfectly reasonable argument for having it out if a case has proved able to do so.

I did not succeed in talk about this and it is only a side story. What is far

more important is the technique of the original operating for cholecystectomy. We have Professor Le Garrec here and one of his former professors in the Middlesex. Sir Gordon Gordon Taylor, was fond of saying that an acute gall-bladder was easy to remove at the same stage, if it was done early enough. I think in the hands of Gordon Taylor it was probably true, but it has discouraged a lot of people to do an immediate cholecystectomy in acute cholecystitis. There's nothing wrong at all with that if you are an experienced surgeon, and if you get the cases early. My own experience of acute cholecystitis is that you do not get them early enough, because cholecystitis is not quite so simple as appendicitis and patients may not be sent for several days. In these situations, cholecystectomy can be a very dangerous procedure, particularly when the surgeon is inexperienced. Cholecystectomy can often turn out to be very much more difficult than anticipated. The anatomy of the cystic duct causes the dissection and clearly the surgeon struggles desperately through a difficult cholecystectomy because of grade which is ultimately the greatest cause of damage to the common bile duct in our patients. I am quite sure that no one thinks any the less of the surgeon who explores the patient, finds these difficult circumstances and says, "I am going to open the gall-bladder and take out the stones and do a cholecystectomy like as Sirp Turner observed, it is much better to be left with a living problem rather than a dead anatomy."

The other type of case which I am sure we have all experienced is the very easy cholecystectomy. In fact it is so easy that the gall-bladder practically falls out and it is only after it has fallen out that what you thought to be a very easy cystic duct was in fact part of the common bile duct or right hepatic duct. Gray Turner always made a point of examining the gall-bladder after it had been removed. He taught that the surgeon should run carefully down the cystic duct and if he found a T junction at the end of it, damage to the duct was indicated.

To summarize, therefore, all structures must be identified before any operative procedure is carried out; if the operation is an easy one it is worth paying for a moment before anything is laid and finally it can be dangerous to run the cystic duct too close to the common bile duct. I would rather risk a cystic duct stump syndrome although I have only ever seen one myself and my impression is that it is uncommon except possibly when the cystic duct is very long. In any event it can be laid reasonably short without being liable with the common duct. With regard to the actual technique of cholecystectomy there are two schools of thought: those who tie the cystic artery first and those who tie the cystic duct first. I belong to the latter school because by tying the duct first the direction of the gall-bladder can be stated before securing the cystic artery. The artery is then tied when it is well clear of the right hepatic duct and the right branch of the hepatic artery.

SUMMARY

Professor Ross

A study of the privilege of gall stones takes our eye the past through the rules of human biology right into the realm of natural science and I do not

next we are going to get much further with our understanding of gallstones without the assistance from crystallographers and physical chemists. I am almost certain that time will show that gallstones will have to be accepted as a basic upon the human race and in many cases caused by affluence and diet. I think gall stones will always be with us. They were with the Pharoahs and they will be with us a thousand years from now.

When it comes to managing patients with gall stones, you will have noticed, firstly what a tremendously important role the radiologist plays in gallstone disease. You will have seen throughout the whole symposium that we have had countless X-rays and cholangiograms and really a surgeon cannot do his difficult work without having expert radiology available. If any of you are in doubt about becoming a cholangiographer or cholangiographer or whatever you like to call a surgeon who does routine cholangiography. I hope you have been convinced that it is important to do it routinely and not on the odd occasions when you think you need help.

The other thing which I think the symposium has stressed about the management of the gall-stone patient is the management is a sequence of events and actions — many actions thinking all the way through. When, for example gall-stones have been found accidentally in a perfectly well-functioning gall-bladder Dr Avery Jones has done it, usually why we must stop and think. Patients should not be pushed into operation just because we accidentally find gall-stones. The doctor must make up his mind whether it would be in the best interests of the patient to have the gall stones removed.

The action, routine action, routine sequence must also be followed when dealing surgically with gallstones, for the surgeon must ensure the bile flows freely all the way from the liver to duodenum, the patient cannot grow another bile duct. This is the principle in biliary surgery and all management must be compared with this thought.

It was appropriate to hear Mr Franklin refer to the customary aspects of the teaching of the late Mr. Cope Turner particularly as he referred to a living problem being better than a dead one — a good thought to go home with.

I should like to bring the symposium to a close by reminding you once more that gall stone disease is extremely common. Twenty per cent of women of child-bearing age have gall-stones. 10 per cent of men over the age of 70 have gall stones, you can get it in children, you can get it in newborn, you can get it in premature babies and it is a hundred times more common than urinary tract stones. It is a very very common disease and I repeat that I think it will always be with us.

History has been written large with gall stones. In the realm of literature Sir Walter Scott suffered for most of his writing life from gall stone colic and so did the great Montaigne. In our time we have seen political decisions affecting contemporary history influenced perhaps by a attack of biliary colic. It is things like that that it is a great hospital and at the same time the day that I

NOTED the evidence that Alexander the Great is supposed to have died from pneumonia contracted with gallstones on the night after he had dined with all his Admirals!

Clinical Features and Course

A CASE OF MIXED SALIVARY TUMOUR OF THE PALATE

By Gerard S. Irvine

Case History.—April 29. This patient, who was seen at the request of the dental officer, presented with a large swelling in the soft palate mainly on the left side but extending over the midline (Fig. 1). It had been present for the past five or six years, was quite painless and the patient denied any symptoms.

The swelling, which was firm and non-fluctuant, was about 4 cm. in diameter. Clinical examination was otherwise entirely negative. X-rays of the skull and paranasal sinuses showed no demonstrable space from a calcified point.

He was admitted to hospital and under general anaesthesia the mass was excised. The tumour was encapsulated and shelled out easily (Fig. 2).

Histology showed this to be a mixed salivary tumour (Figs. 3 and 4).

He was referred to the radiotherapist who advised against radiotherapy unless he should get a recurrence.

He will be seen for review at intervals.



Fig. 1. Large swelling in the soft palate.

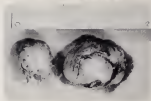


Fig. 1. Shells.



Fig. 2. Detail of the surface.

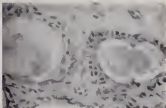


Fig. 4. Same as Fig. 3

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A CASE OF ERYTHEMA MULTIFORME EXUDATIVUM

(Stevens-Johnson Syndrome)

By J. W. Rank and E. J. Gordon Wallace

To report an unusual case may become more interest to the reader than his readers. The Stevens-Johnson Syndrome is a rare condition of unknown etiology, which is thought to be a severe variant of erythema multiforme. The latter is an eruption usually classified as "hives," which, though self-limiting, is liable to relapse.

The syndrome consists of

1. Inflamed and ulcerated mouth and lips
2. Acute conjunctivitis with hyperemia
3. Acute inflammation of the urinary meatus in the male and of the labia and vagina in the female
4. A rash erythematous papular with a confluent distribution on limbs with, however, vesicles and with the individual lesions increasing in size. These may burst leaving a raw surface which becomes crusted.

All four lesions are extremely painful.

The disease is commonly preceded within the previous month by an upper respiratory tract infection. An atypical pneumonia may be a complicating factor. (1941) Death is not unknown. An association with treatment with sulfonamides or barbiturates is thought to exist (Kilowidge, Harris, Wink and Stevens, 1964, quoted by Swanson, 1965). The long acting sulfonamides are a particular suspect.

Clinical History of the Case

1st March 1966—A young woman, aged 18 years 10 months, reported to the Sick Bay on her ship with a sore throat and cough. Her temperature was normal. She was treated symptomatically as an upper respiratory tract infection.

4th March—Her throat was red and inflamed and some lymph nodes were noted in the neck. She complained of pain in the chest. She was given one tablet each of crystalline penicillin intramuscularly.

5th March—Her mouth was more inflamed, more swollen and more painful. She still had a little pain in her chest. Her temperature was 99° and her felt weaker. She was sent ashore for examination.

She looked pale and ill. Her lips angular stomatitis and the mucous membrane of her mouth and cheeks was covered with a thin glazy nodules. There were two shallow ulcers on the soft palate. The fauces were relatively clear. She had no swelling or conjunctivitis and obviously the chest was clear. Her temperature was 100.4°. She was sent to the Sick Bay H M S. *Shamoy*.

10th March—She was very uncomfortable. Her temperature was 102° and she complained of sore eyes. A few papules and blisters were seen on the upper chest and thighs, these were about 1 cm. in diameter. There was slight desquamation and erythema around the vesicles. In spite of the morphological features of the eruption, erythema was considered and she was sent to the Civilian Isolation Hospital.

It was thought that he might have an atypical pneumonia in addition to his skin condition and he was started on chloramphenicol 500 mg. 8-hourly. Venous blood and sputum were sent for radiological investigations to exclude veno- and



The extensive formation of thrombi and necrosis of the lower extremities, prominent on the left leg and right thigh.

the thorax. Temperature remained high and he was very ill. He now had some conjunctivitis and oedema of the primary vesicles. The rash was also spreading.

A firm diagnosis of Stevens-Johnson Syndrome was made, the chloramphenicol was discontinued and penicillinase was started with a dosage of 33 mg. every six hours. After forty-eight hours this was reduced to 20 mg. six-hourly, and the dosage was continued for four days, when it was tapered off to 10 mg. and then 5 mg. six hourly over the next twelve days, being finally stopped on April 1. Antibiotic cover with penicillin was maintained throughout the period of vesical eruptions.

There was some improvement in the temperature after twenty-four hours treatment with penicillins, though the diarrhoea was more severely relieved.

The milk became more profuse leading, however, to some no nutritional disturbance. The vesicles became larger, up to 2 cm. in diameter.

The temperature was normal and very uncomfortable. There was no general emaciation or oedema. The eyelids, lips and nostrils were covered with sores. The nostrils were very tender and bled on moving her.

After a week he began to feed better and his temperature became normal after twelve days in hospital.

The photographs show the features of the fully developed rash. One should note that this is not characteristic of the lesions in the early stage.



The fully developed lesions such as on the right upper arm and others.

Special investigations

Repeat W.B.C. counts showed a polymorph percentage varying between 86%–99%, of a total of 94 thousand. There was a shift to the left.

A chest X-ray on March 22 showed no evidence of significant abnormality.

The cultures for virus were negative.

Investigation for mycoplasmas by cultured methods was carried out and proved negative.

Progress

The patient made a good recovery and was discharged from hospital on 20th November on 2 April 1966.

Present History

This is interesting. He says that he is very liable to catch colds and 'flu'. We got in touch with his family doctor who said that to the best of his knowledge no long-acting antibiotics had been prescribed for the patient at any time before he got the flu. He had a very rare attack which he thinks was even worse than the present attack.

In March 1967 he was treated in H. M. St. Francis for an upper respiratory tract infection and 'a rash on the forearms and legs typical of erythema multiforme' also similar lesions in the mouth and lips. The treatment was rest cure with Caladryl for the skin.

In June 1967 he had abscesses of the mouth treated with Tetracycline.

In July 1967 he had abscesses of the mouth with a temperature of 38.2°. He was treated with tetracycline and mouth washes of Glyco-Flupredone. Early in August he was no better. The white cell count was 1750, with a normal differential count. On a course of hydrogen peroxide, purple 1 ml. penicillin and syrup aspirin there was a rapid recovery. He was discharged on August 22, 1967, with erythema free. On September 15, 1967, he reported a rash on his back, trunk and arms with a normal temperature. The rash responded to Caladryl.

DISCUSSION

The diagnosis of the severe Herpes illness was not in doubt, with the full development of the rash, with the eyes like balls of fire, with the lesions of the eyelids, lips, mouth and urinary meatus, with the history of suggestive previous attacks and the mouth examined with an upper respiratory tract infection.

Diagnosis is difficult, however, in the early stages. Vincent's August may produce a very sore mouth and Vincent's organisms may be found in the mouth as a Stevens-Johnson syndrome (Stevens and Johnson, 1952), but it is a progress and pyrexia with a rarely observed rash.

Licentia canalicula and *diphtheria* produce lesions in the throat which the Stevens-Johnson syndrome tends to spare (Ludlow, 1931).

The Rash—Agarwal is in the early stages that diphtheria is felt. Morison may be suspected if an erythematous papular rash appears first on the face, and only occasionally observed, but may make diagnosis difficult. The appearance of diphtheria in the mouth may help.

The vascular development of the rash on the face, wrists and ankles may, and often does, suggest a suspicion of malignancy, or of the most harmful diphtheria.

Progress—Relapses are to be expected and consulting may have to be considered.

Diagnosis in England—For those who are interested in the recent views on the strategy of the British, Dick and Kimmaville (1965) in an article in the *Lancet*, discuss various theories while developing the possible role of *mycoplasma pneumoniae*.

SUMMARY

A case of erythema multiforme exudativum (Stevens-Johnson Syndrome) is described.

During the early stage of the disease the rash may be confused with eczema and in this case challenge was attempted.

Treatment for a self-limiting disease is largely symptomatic and supportive. Prednisolone at therapeutic dosage is of great value.

Modern views on aetiology are still indefinite but sulphazone, sulphonamides, and also viruses are suggested amongst other things, as being in some way connected with the disease.

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Articles

THE CARE OF THE INJURED IN ADVERSE CONDITIONS*

By Stanley Miles

I am very conscious that the majority of you who are listening to this paper have the advantage of caring for the injured under the very best of conditions. I deeply appreciate the honour of being invited to give this important lecture and propose to deal with those events and stressful situations where the successful treatment of an injury depends solely on the consciousness of companions and the courage of the individual. Often raised for injury may be the direct result of the environment—a slow progressive destruction of tissue and function which in the long run may be as equally hazardous to life as the instantaneous damage of the severe physical accident.

A study of the effects of injury in adverse conditions gives prominence to the now accepted belief that an injury involves the whole person in what Roscoe Clark has described as the drama of trauma. Unfortunately there is still a tendency in many quarters to isolate the injury and rarely a day passes but we are in the medical press, the paragraph.

He was taking no hospital, where he was detained for observation. A hospital spokesman said he was suffering from shock but was otherwise unscathed.

That every wound should be considered against the background of the patient is not a new idea. In 1764 Dr. Boerhaave commenting on the Aphorisms of Professor Herman Boerhaave of Leyden wrote:

There are many who have their whole nervous system so very liable to variation that the slightest cause throws them into convulsive cramps or induces even death itself. Ought the physician death in such a case be regarded only as the wound itself?

As an example he goes on to report:

The King of Persia playing with one of his concubines that he had a great love for directed the point of his dagger towards her breast and while he was fixing up to stab her naked breast happened to make a slight wound scarce visible to the eye and yet she suddenly fell down and expired in its instant.

The X-ray (Fig. 1) is that of an elbow in which there is a minute crack in the olecranon process. Normally this would create little interest and treatment and recovery would be uneventful. In fact this accident caused world wide concern and could have been disastrous. It resulted from a minor injury to a professional during an open single-handed action across the North Atlantic. News photographs were quick to point out the self-supplied bandage and emphasized the discomfort which must have resulted from the inability to rest the injured limb. From the most trivial injuries can result the single-handed adventures for those have extremely vulnerable to the circumstances.

*George Clark Memorial Lecture given to the Institute of Accident Surgery at Birmingham on May 7, 1964.



Fig. 1. Driver involved in a crash.

First-aid kits, especially in cars, should first and foremost be good both to the individual's personal welfare and the effect of his own call to emergency. In many cases, as the following table plan will show, the injuries are, if at least important.

The most common injuries which should conditions have occurred during car fires, but these are well recorded and will not be included in this paper.

INJURY IN A STRESSFUL ENVIRONMENT

Survival from injury when no professional help is immediately available and may not be reached for weeks or may well depend first of all on the extent of the wound and effectiveness of first aid either self applied or given by companions. If this is adequate the most important single factor in creating ultimate survival is morale,

the subject has indicated to the lay respondent. Discipline is still an assumption and support of individualism. The more advanced the environmental concept, the more important the becomes especially as they see more and more injury.

Explores and other adventures who must be prepared for emergencies and protection will if they are ever have studied the special hazards which may be in wait for them. The need to travel light may well limit the first aid and medical stores carried but in addition to injuries due to environment and accidents involving open wounds and wounds preparation should be made for the more serious such as snake bite, attacks by dangerous marine animals or other specific cases.

INJURY ON MOUNTAIN AND MOORLAND

The increasing popularity of mountaineering, cross country walking and moorland walking which may be undertaken by individuals, small parties or larger groups will inevitably produce a toll of injuries, commonly to the legs and ankles. Such accidents severely make it difficult or impossible for the casualty to continue. First aid measures may be no more than first bandaging and splinting of the injured part with the administration of a simple pain relieving drug such as aspirin. The vital decision which must be made according to circumstances is whether (a) the patient should be encouraged to struggle on with or without the help of companions or (b) whether he should be left while others attempt to find help. In rough mountainous country, the former may be impossible and indeed even under the most ideal conditions should only be considered if it can be accomplished without further harm or deterioration to the injured person.

The greatest single hazard in these circumstances is that of exposure. In recent years this has produced many deaths in mountainous regions all of which need not have occurred if adequate precautions had been taken. Even in the country a person who is not well rapidly becomes cold and suffers from ankle chills. An injured person is particularly vulnerable to this. The first consideration must be to provide shelter and dry clothing if available. Those engaged on such expeditions should be prepared for this by wearing not only completely waterproof outer garments but very dry clothes underneath. Pugh (1966) has stressed the need for providing adequate protection against wind and wetting especially for the legs. In the winter ground is extremely important and shelter from this can usually be provided by digging in, making shields of snow or branches or even building a snow house and group is much personal cover and clothing so can be arranged. In other words making the casualty as comfortable as possible. Provided the position is adequately marked companions can then come to work help even if only one is available. One vital advantage of this kind however should be discouraged but when accidents happen to them they should know the importance of shelter until conditions improve or help arrives. It is far better to stay put than risk further shock and chill by struggling on at a very modest rate in adverse conditions.

When rescue teams arrive they may or may not be specially trained but great care will be needed in the transport of the patient over the rough ground. For this purpose lightweight stretcher or the more modern Parapet stretcher (Fig. 2), are

griefs and avoidance of further injury by holding in place or. However one wishes to be lenient or severe and often under the circumstances of the modern traveler this suggestion is regarded to achieve this. As a first and necessary first alternative care be obtained from the body contents of companions. When cold injury has not yet developed but there is the individual should be encouraged to wiggle the imposed fingers and toes stimulated by a hot moist piece of wool. If this can be kept up it may considerably delay the onset. Adequate treatment is frequently only possible on return to base. It is important in these and similar conditions upon to treat the patient as a whole giving encouragement with warm food and drink if available and above all maintaining the will of survival. Experimental arctic adventures first heat and then again shows the value of carrying facilities to provide hot warming drinks. Sir Ernest Shackleton in his remarkable arctic adventures found the proven merit on inevitable piece of equipment.

INJURY IN THE JUNGLE

As a complete contrast the injured traveler in the jungle would run little risk from exposure, be fairly well supplied with food and water and protected by shade. Usually in transport the injured would be welcomed by the thickets of the undergrowth but the worst hazards would be from fever, malarial and biting insects and the wild animals. Some of these might indeed be the cause of the injury and those planning such adventures would be well advised to prepare for such contingencies as for example using hair (Bloomer, 1955).

A person bitten by a snake is severely injured in spite of the fact that the rate of mortality does not exceed 2% thus the most important requirement is resuscitation. The outcome depends on several factors, e.g. the severity of the venom or type of snake, the amount of venom injected, the site of injection and the resistance of the victim. The toxicity and consequently the mortality varies with the species of snake it may be a continuous of cobra and krait or a haemotoxic of viper. The amount injected will be large in a snake bite from a banded krait which has not yet fed or small in one which has recently bitten other animals or is working the end of its season. The snake will be much more venomous if the bite penetrates a vein than if it enters from a superficial wound. Adults are usually less susceptible than children.

After resuscitation the bitten surface should be washed with water and the pain reduced if possible. If possible the limb should be kept in a dependent position which will complicate but will delay the absorption of the venom. Pain may be relieved with aspirin or perhaps but never morphine.

In such emergency courses a specific antivenom may be needed which should be given immediately after first taking precautions for signs of anaphylaxis. In Great Britain where the viper is the only venomous snake the specific antivenom is more dangerous than the bite. Its value is uncertain.

The troops of life in the jungle is a constantly slow and there is truly any urgent life against time. On the other hand a disabled man particularly if he has eyes enough, can rapidly be overwhelmed with bushes or better by sun or other means. It shall never forget finding an injured man who had been in the jungle for several

days with open wounds which were increasing with maggots and most unpleasant to deal with.) In these hot, humid climates it is only to be expected that the healing of wounds is severely delayed and transfer to an unconditioned hospital is essential for successful recovery.

INJURY IN THE DESERT

During the hot season the main danger to an injured man is the dry, burning heat of the tropical sun. Not only the direct effect on any exposed skin but more so for the dehydration which is inevitable if, as frequently occurs, water is at all scarce. Any effort on the part of the victim to move or exert himself will hasten the onset of heat stroke. The water requirement in any injury during heat of the day may be as great as one litre per hour. (Bleeds or other losses) to the severity of the desert and any attempt to move him should take place only at night when the air is relatively cool. Hot sand-laden winds may frequently add to the misery of the situation.

INJURY AT SEA

Injury at sea has certain characteristics. These from conventional sources are more frequently due to the nature of the ship which may have more exposed obstructions or cause them to be struck by imperceptibly moving objects. Most of these are great simple hazards by a single headed double or square bow and from the ship's master. Major injuries are more common in harbour as a result of loading and stowage of cargo or repair to machinery. There are taken care of by the shore based medical services.

It is as a result of and following shipwreck that injuries may occur in situations fraught with danger. Many may be lost in trying to save the ship or launch life boats. The act of jumping into the sea may be dangerous if badly a body may be floating about or if the life jacket worn is unsatisfactory or improperly secured. When the *La Jolla* sank in 1963 many passengers, pumped into the sea from a considerable height, 60' bodies recovered and examined 75% showed evidence of head injury suggesting injury by the life jacket in falling the water.

The transfer of injured from a sinking ship to a shore base and where possible they should be placed on the beach before lowering or hoist calls directly. In the water even when satisfactory life jackets are worn the problem of climbing into a boat or life raft may still remain. This is sometimes difficult for the completely fit and may be impossible if a back or out of action through injury. Of many dozens of fatalities and boarding ramps raised none is completely satisfactory and injured men are largely dependent on their companions for assistance. Fortunately nature is compassionate and men and help is rarely lacking.

For the injured and unaided man in the water sun, if they escape drowning, faced in winter with hypothermia and exposure and in tropical waters very much at the mercy of sharks.

(3) Drowning

There has been considerable misunderstanding about drowning which must certainly represent a form of injury in an adverse environment. This is largely due

to the publicity given to animal experiments where there is a clear distinction between drowning in fresh water and sea water. Fresh water when absorbed produced gross hemolysis with rapid death from vascular fish, while sea water caused marked hemoconcentration with a slightly slower death from osmolarity fishes and certain mammals. In man both closely and in post mortem examinations little or no difference is found.

In man possibly twenty per cent of drownings occur without water entering the lungs (dry drowning) and death is due to a simple asphyxia. It is those cases which respond best to resuscitative measures, have dreams of past events and make an uneventful recovery.

When water enters the lungs (wet drowning) irrespective of whether it is salt or fresh and regardless of a constant suspended matter or well out as a foreign body producing pulmonary embolism with an embolus of protein into the alveoli. The rapid filling of the lungs which normally acts as an anti surfactant system agent to maintain balanced surfaces of alveoli loses its effect when diluted with water so that some alveoli collapse while others expand. The bulk of capillary blood flow is diverted through the collapsed alveoli thus being less vulnerable to water transfer from osmotic differences.

If the patient survives the asphyxial stage as there seems to be no reflex vagotonic mechanism is applied, develop a progressive respiratory depression with increasing post rough hemolysis, cyanosis, i.e., a progressive pulmonary edema, pneumonia, consolidation and death from what may be conveniently called secondary drowning.

New first aid techniques of extended air resuscitation and closed chest cardiac massage have greatly improved chances of survival and allowed time for drowning cases to be brought to hospital still alive. All cases even uncomplicated dry drowning, should be attended for at least 24 hours observation. Where there is evidence of imbalance of water, i.e., of pulmonary embolism or is not rarely disturbance of blood electrolyte balance, the case becomes an acute medical emergency demanding such rigorous treatment as positive pressure oxygen, tracheotomy and intravenous plasma supported by anti shock hypotension to diminish the effect of cerebral edema if resuscitation has been delayed and cerebral damage.

Death may also occur as a result of sudden immersion in cold water possibly due to a vaso spasm shock. This fatality is a rare event but when it does occur is most likely in young adults who have absorbed large quantities of alcohol.

(c) Hypothermia

A lightly clothed man will not live more than fifteen minutes in water at 0°C and cannot maintain heat balance below 10°C (Silver, 1955). The more clothing he wears the better and with a specially designed survival suit it is possible to remain alive for 6 to 12 hours. Men in the water get on their own and require most great assistance. If they are well trained they will have been taught that unless they have a heavy covering of fat, they should remain as motionless as possible (Pugh and Ballance 1953). A thin man remaining loose a great deal more heat than when he is motionless.

(b) Shark Life

In warm water where the air temperature exceeds 28°C, if drowning is escaped, the next hazard in the water is not hypothermia but sharks from which death may be equally swift. In this instance a wounded man is exceedingly vulnerable as blood will attract sharks from considerable distances and if present in quantity may send them into a vicious frenzy. Every story of men put in small boats or pirogues drifting on calm oceans, the ever-present menace of hungry swimming sharks ready to pounce upon the least suddenly changed in the water or quickly discover any body part over the side. On one typical occasion two men spent five days in a raft 7 ft. by 4 ft. in calm without food or water. The days were scorching hot and the nights bitterly cold and during the period one sailor cooking his legs in the water was pulled on by sharks. A further victim perished from exhaustion or fell over the side while suffering from hallucinations and was devoured. Finally when the last two survivors saw an approaching ship one of them tried to paddle the raft towards the rescuers with his leg. This was immediately completed by a waiting shark. He was, however, recovered and lived.

The shark has commonly a narrow, rigid lining away of fins or baulks. On completion of a fin is near the forepart of the body. Green lantern-hugs and stick, used for which early plasma transfusion gives the best chance of survival. In the popular sub-tropical bathing beaches where the shark menace exists (Dodge (1944) recommends the combination of fins and pads with sticks of plasma and giving safe valuable for immediate use in the water's edge.

Sharks, even the non-biting ones, may also cause injury by direct buffeting with their heavy bodies or damage large areas with broad fins from contact with their extremely rough skin. Sharks are not man's only enemies in the sea. There are barracuda, porpoise, giant clam, equally fatal stinging anemones which may kill within three minutes, stone fish, poison eels, sea snakes and the nighty killer whale who will flip over an air flow and devour whole any unfortunate castaways who might be taking passage on a

(c) Drowning

That the period between leaving the ship and reaching a life boat or raft is critical has been well shown by McGee, Lingley, Giffill and Widdowson (1934). They found that for 17,000 men lost at sea between 1940 and 1944 the average was 31% of whom 80% died in the water. Once the raft or life boat is reached the chance of survival is greatly increased although a whole lot of adverse factors remain, the major one of which is dehydration. Without water death will occur within a week or ten days and any attempt to drink sea water even diluted with fresh will only speed the end. An injured man may already be dehydrated from loss of blood and to give him an equal chance his water ration should be increased at the expense of others. Usually survivors on destroyers will make great sacrifices for wounded companions but in desperate circumstances, needs and desires may clash and there have been instances where the wounded and dying have been sacrificed for food and drink. To quote a survivor:

We caught the blood in a bucket and drank it while it was warm. We swapped the

body. Let it open and look and see here and here! and see the liver while it was warm' (McCormack 1964).

These acts of cannibalism, unthinkable though they may seem, have saved lives which would otherwise have been lost and theoretically these can be held real differences as a man saving his life by eating a dying man is free from the acceptable carnal provision of a liver transplant.

The onset of dehydration may in the early stages be worsened by cannibalism which should if possible be treated. Most professional swimmers will have adopted themselves to the rough weather, although the rubber life raft itself because of its flexibility produces in bad weather a motion far worse than that of a rigid boat which at least accepts some rhythm. All life boat rafts therefore should include correct tables of which hypoxia hypothermia is the drug of choice. In a very rare, however, the situation is just worse than 48 hours, but this period is often critical to an emergency.

(4) Exhaustion

The struggle to climb into the life-raft or boat in circumstances of extreme stress and stress can be particularly grueling, especially if the individual is in any way injured. This is worsened by exposure to motion—cold wet and wind, and sometimes over-exposure to sun, the desperate urge to survive amongst pleading companions. The weak shortage of water and food and lack of sleep very soon sap away the individual's reserves until even the greatest effort is utterly exhausting. Loss of muscular control is not uncommon and it becomes difficult to maintain balance without falling overboard. Sleep is often impossible. It is well known, particularly by single-handed ocean sailors that lack of sleep quickly leads to bizarre hallucinations. These often bring the form of backswimming figures are so convincing as to cause swimmers to step into the water and drown. Lindemann (1962) describes his own experience of sleeplessness and hallucinations and stresses the importance of prolonged prolonged pre-Lindemann before venturing on a long voyage so that the subconscious is trained to ignore the impressions of any hallucinations, and carry on with routine matters.

Exhaustion is further worsened by the variety of damage which may be done by exposure—for example sunburn, frostbite, and even sun and heat from the radiation of an engine. In these various may have more of these skin covered with abrasions than without. If these are untreated they will speed the onset of death but if it is soon-on be done then, dressing with breadstarch dipped in sea water, if they can be kept dry from pain they will be less painful.

(5) Loss of Morale

'Whether injured or otherwise the one single factor' which can weigh the balance in favour of survival is good morale. Time and time again our experienced confident and strong personality amongst a group of castaways will hold them together and bring them through to safety. Once the will to live is lost death soon follows. A life-boat containing 12 men was sent for 12 days (West, 1966). Of these 10 were French, 20 Dutch and 10 Danish, or German. Only 20 survived 12 French, 10 Dutch and 10 Danish or German. These figures speak for themselves reflecting the importance of

the greater experience and faith of the French veterans. A good leader will silence doubts, this care of the injured, keep hope alive and the men systematically engaged in some warfare. In the early days this may be saving and worry killing but as effectiveness grows it is common and helpful to meet on points which may save the day and avoid the necessary trials to pull through. Many life boat people, pleased with this in mind include both experience and a copy of the new technique.

If the risk of loss of life is small to be reduced, professional action must be provided with the very best of life saving equipment. In tough time to come and unknowned fully the art of saving time in extreme adversity.

INJURY UNDER WATER

The recent criticism of diving techniques in exposing water adventures and sometimes confusions may be a new and often dangerous environment. Accidents do occur, many are fatal but gross physical injury is not except perhaps by under-water explosion. Inevitable from water-blast propeller blades or striking. Surfacing for treatment may be complicated by the need for decompression and any surgery required to be done may have to be carried out in the confined space of a compression chamber in which the patient may have to remain for many hours.

A more specific injury may occur to a diver who is forced to abandon a finny set on the sea bed and attempts to surface holding his breath. Embolism of pressure during ascent will result as air within the chest expanding being taken as it expands until it becomes toxic. At the surface when pressure is released some air may pass through veins being drawn directly into the pulmonary circulation and reaching the heart enters the arterial circulation in the carotids. There may even find solvents in the arterial or coronary circulation. It also occurs the mind and life saving treatment is sometimes resuscitation to a pressure of 5 atm. bubbles. If no pressure chamber is available the chance of survival may be slightly improved by placing the casualty with the head lower in a position between left lateral and prone in the hope that the lighter bubbles of air will be kept away from arterial and coronary circulation.

Even in the pressure chamber such cases, during treatment may have escape of air through damaged lung into the pleural cavity. This causes decompression and escape from the chamber difficult as reduction in pressure causes this air to expand giving respiratory and cardiac embarrassment. Only severe withdrawal of the trapped air will return the condition which treatment must be carried out in the chamber under pressure.

CONCLUSIONS

From the foregoing it will be seen that where injury occurs in remote and stressful conditions, provided adequate first aid can be given, the main task is to protect the patient from further deterioration by the treatment. This needs not only physical protection but a strong conviction that however bad things may be the outcome could well be favourable. There is no the very a lesson which may well be of importance in treating all injuries even when the most modern facilities are constantly available. An injured person finds himself in a situation where the whole of his world is turned

speak down. He may be in pain, bleeding, surrounded by ignited specimens and very frightened. He may be wheeled into hospital by an efficient ambulance crew and treated skilfully by well-trained surgeons when the most important need from the beginning is a few words of gentle reassurance. That is a lesson I personally learned from a very distinguished surgeon, because I am sure to meet of you, the late Sir Ernest Shack. However think the patient's future, he would place his trust on his shoulder and with a voice full of compassion and confidence say, "Don't worry, you are going to be perfectly all right."

There was something about the way the reassurance was given which made it the most important of all the incidents.

Finally though I promised not to quote wartime injuries, I would like to say a brief word about the death of Lord Nelson as I think this illustrates the argument with extreme clarity.

Lord Nelson was a man of superb morale, brave, bold and integrity whose spirit in adversity was sustained by his absolute sense of duty and a deep and very real love for Emma Hamilton. He took great care of his health and remained, as was shown eventually by the post mortem examination, extremely fit. His heart resembled that of a youth although he was 47 years old when he died. A little less of his injury he was walking with Admiral Hardy on the quarterdeck of HMS Victory. A ball from a random attack by the enemy, entered the shoulder deeply fracturing the anterior process of the scapula and passing obliquely into the thorax, fracturing the 1st and 2nd ribs, and entered the left side where it divided a large branch of the pulmonary artery. Therefore it penetrated the left side of space between 4th and 7th dorsal vertebrae following the left transverse process of the 6th. On ascending the spinal cord and fracturing the right transverse process of the 7th. It made its way from the right side of the spine following the curve through the muscles of the back and lodged there about 2 in. below the inferior angle of the right scapula. When the ball was removed a portion of gold lace, a part of the scapula and a small piece of the cord were closely attached to it.

The details of his last hours are recorded in the official report by Dr. William Beatty (1805) *Ship's Surgeon to the Victory* in which he describes the "notorious/very famous" of the moment. Nelson felt the shot enter his chest and as he fell said

They have done for me at last—my back bone is shot through

The accident occurred just as the battle was commencing and although Nelson was to have before he left sending for Hardy for care of his injuries. At that time he reportedly requested those around him to make sure that everything would be done after his death for the welfare of Lady Hamilton and his adopted daughter. He was feeling positive of life in his chest and though in great pain he was the center away to care for other wounded who might be saved. He refused to hand over his command to Collingwood and when the doctor told him nothing could be done for him he replied

I know so—That he perished—I have done my duty

BILHARZIASIS IN MAURITIUS

By Robert I. Manson

In September 1966 the Royal Naval Hospital, Mauritius, in co-operation with the Mauritian Medical Research Committee, organised a controlled study into the effects of Azidothiame on bilharziasis. Particular emphasis was placed on the cytological appearance of the bladder lesions in response to the drug, and also on the side-effects of the drug, but unfortunately specimens of liver, intestine, bladder, and specimens of spermatozoa.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF BILHARZIASIS

Three species of *Schistosoma* responsible for bilharziasis are found throughout the Asian, South American and African continents. In East Africa and neighbouring islands (Malagasy is 1 000 miles west of the continent) both the *Schistosoma haematobium* and *Schistosoma boeckmanni* are endemic, but in Mauritius only the one of the latter have yet been identified in the water.

MODE OF INFECTION AND LIFE CYCLE OF THE PARASITE

Schistosoma haematobium, which is responsible for urinary bilharziasis, uses the aquatic *Bulinus* snail as a vector and the disease is contracted by walking, bathing or fishing in fresh water infested with cercariae.

The cercariae penetrate the moist skin of the human host and travel via the lymphatics to the lungs and the liver, where they mature into adult paired schistosomes. The female then migrates via the bloodstreams to the peripheral veins, particularly the venous plexus, where the female lays her eggs over a period of years. The eggs pass pass through the walls of the hollow organs and via the urine and faeces are voided into fresh water, where each worm becomes a miracidium. The miracidium seeks the appropriate snail host and having passed through several larval stages, emerges as the cercariae which are discharged again into the water.

SYMPTOMATOLOGY

Many people who may give rise to positive faeces in Swenson's test, whilst the serological responses provided by invasion of the body by cercariae and later adult worms, may manifest itself by pronounced urticaria and fever. Local signs are attributable to cercariae and are usually referable to the urinary tract, e.g. pain or itch or discharge and haematuria, or discharge when the intestinal tract is involved.

MORPHO ANATOMY IN BLADDER

The vesical lesions are represented by

1. Nodules or "gravel" which appear as firm white submucosal lesions and are the ones lying subacutely before penetration
2. Papillomas: usually showing signs of recent bleeding which are the evidence of the passage to penetration. These sometimes progress to malignancy
3. Ulcers and
4. Carcin.

TREATMENT

Ambilhar was chosen for treatment because of its claimed advantages, viz:

1. Active against all *Schistosoma*
2. Active against all stages of the parasite but particularly the adult forms, thus inhibiting reproduction which in itself would render but a transient cure and by interrupting the life cycle of the parasite also render an epidemiological cure
3. Low toxicity, though consistently symptomatic and inhibition of spermatogenesis were encountered in laboratory animals with high doses of the drug

CLINICAL MATERIAL

All doctors in Mawardi were requested to refer patients whom they considered were suffering from schistosomiasis. The prerequisites for admission to the study were:

- (I) Confirmation of *Schistosoma* ova in the urine
- (II) No previous anti schistosomal therapy
- (III) Consent for general examination and willingness to submit to follow-up

Though the disease is endemic in Mawardi, only long-term cases were referred from September 1965 to January 1, 1968. Of these twenty-two qualified for admission to the final analysis, the remainder being diagnosed under classes (I) or (II) above. The original relevance of the Mawardi to submit to follow-up, having been cured was the great stumbling block to the project.

NATURE OF STUDY

On first admission, symptomatology was recorded (Table I) and a 50 hour urine collected. The presence of ova having been confirmed in the urine. Full Blood Count, Haemoglobin, Serum Creatinine, Thrombocytes (BDCT) and ECG were then carried out to establish a baseline. Cystoscopy under general anaesthesia was next undertaken and the bladder lesions recorded. Positive cases were then commenced on *Ambilhar* for 7 days. On the eighth day of treatment the patient returned for a Full Blood Count, Mirinase Serum, Serum Creatinine, BDCT and ECG. Thereafter at one month and three months from initial cystoscopy, he was reexamined for repeat 50 hour urine specimens and cystoscopy under anaesthesia.

Table 1
Clinical and Cytological Features

Case No.	Age	Sex	Site	Macroscore	Features	Cells	Polo	Endobag Top Water	Washing on Swab
1	20	M							
2	27	F							
3	28	M							
4	35	M							
5	44	M							
6	5	M							
7	28	F							
8	33	M							
9	23	M							
10	30	M							
11	38	M							
12	34	M							
13	38	M							
14	48	F							
15	5	F							
16	33	M							
17	4	F							
18	30	F							
19	23	M							
20	28	M							
21	36	M							
22	24	M							
23	25	M							
24	30	M							
25	27	F							
26	39	F							

Cytoscopic findings are shown in Table 2. It will be seen that in all cases, both the papillomata and ulcers involved completely, were only removed at the site of the original incision at second cytoscopy and complete healing had taken place by third cytoscopy. Nodules, though very much reduced in numbers, were usually resistant to

final cytotoxicity. This is not surprising as Anidulain is most effective against the early form of the *Leishmania*. No sign of relapse was seen throughout the series.

It is of course to note with Case No. 2 that further follow-up was deferred following second cytotoxicity on her becoming pregnant. As final results were obtained months from commencement of treatment, no further lesions were observed.

TABLE I
Response to Treatment: Cytotoxicity Assessment

Case No.	Single			Purification			Uptake		
	10	15	20	21	25	29	10	15	20
1	++	+	—	2	—	—	2	—	—
2	++	++	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
3	++	++	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
4	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
5	++	++	++	2	—	—	1	—	—
6	+	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
7	+	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
8	++	+	—	1	—	—	1	—	—
9	++	+	+	2	—	—	1	—	—
10	++	++	++	2	—	—	—	—	—
11	++	++	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
12	+	+	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
13	++	+	+	2	—	—	—	—	—
14	++	+	+	2	—	—	—	—	—
15	++	+	—	1	—	—	2	—	—
16	++	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
17	++	++	+	2	—	—	—	—	—
18	+	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
19	++	++	++	1	—	—	1	—	—
20	++	+	+	2	—	—	2	—	—
21	+	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
22	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
23	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
24	++	+	+	2	—	—	—	—	—
25	++	+	+	2	—	—	—	—	—
26	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
27	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
28	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
29	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
30	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
31	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
32	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
33	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
34	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
35	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
36	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
37	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
38	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
39	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
40	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
41	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
42	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
43	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
44	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
45	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
46	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
47	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
48	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
49	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
50	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
51	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
52	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
53	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
54	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
55	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
56	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
57	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
58	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
59	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
60	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
61	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
62	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
63	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
64	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
65	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
66	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
67	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
68	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
69	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
70	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
71	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
72	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
73	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
74	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
75	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
76	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
77	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
78	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
79	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
80	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
81	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
82	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
83	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
84	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
85	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
86	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
87	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
88	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
89	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
90	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
91	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
92	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
93	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
94	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
95	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
96	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
97	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
98	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
99	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—
100	++	+	+	1	—	—	—	—	—

ASSAY OF STRONTIUM-90 IN HUMAN PERMANENT TEETH IN THE UNITED KINGDOM 1963-1965

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This report, the third of the series, presents further results of assays of strontium-90 in permanent teeth extracted during the years 1963-1965. It is part of a survey sponsored by the Royal Navy in conjunction with the United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority of strontium-90 accumulating in the dental tissues of man as a result of radioactive fallout. Corresponding data covering the period 1959-1962 have been reported previously (Bryant, Henderson & Holgate, 1960; Sharkey, Bryant & Henderson, 1964).

Material for assay is collected from all parts of the country by seventy volunteers. The teeth must be whole and sound to preserve incremental growth patterns laid down under fluctuating conditions of surface contamination.

Therefore, the survey is limited to persons from sixteen to 21 years old and third molars from patients aged 19-21 whose three categories are statistically distributed in period conditions for orthodontic reasons. There are two collections a year (January-June, July-December). Samples are labelled according to age-group. Crowns and roots are divided and analysed separately. Whole tooth values are derived by calculating the weighted mean. Teeth from areas with more than 40 curies/m² ground rainfall are classified separately.

The analytical methods used are those of Bryant, Morgan & Spence (1959) modified for teeth as described by Bryant *et al.* (1960) and Sharkey *et al.* (1964). The natural strontium content is determined spectrophotically by methods of Bryant *et al.* (1959).

Continuous results are available respecting over 40,000 teeth. The concentration of strontium-90 (integrated as pCi/g Ca) has continued to rise with the passage of time in all age groups. As may be seen it was higher in the younger than in the older groups. In my group group it was higher in the roots than in the crowns. That is to say, it was always higher in the tissues that were last to replace—an effect consistent with rising levels of dietary intake of tooth-erecting bone, not subject to remodeling. Samples from heavy rainfall areas always produced higher values than corresponding samples in the general survey, often more than twice as high. This continued the trend noted in the previous report.

The tables conform with the arrangement used in the Medical Research Council's Monitoring Series on the effects of radioactive fallout, of which this work is a part.

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TABLE 1

DETAILS OF SAMPLES AND RESULTS OF ANALYSES OF URINARY TETRACIN EXCRETION 1964-1965, FARMINGTON

4-WT Sample reference	Date Excreted	Age Excreted	Crane		Rust		Wilde Duck	
			to ppm Cr	mg p/100 Cr	to ppm Cr	mg p/100 Cr	to ppm Cr	mg p/100 Cr
174--175	Spring 62	9	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
176--177		10	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
178--179		11	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
180--181		12	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
182--183	Summer 62	9	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
184--185		10	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
186--187		11	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
188--189		12	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
190--191	Spring 64	9	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
192--193		10	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
194--195		11	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
196--197		12	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
198--199	Summer 64	9	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
200--201		10	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
202--203		11	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
204--205		12	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
206--207	Spring 65	9	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
208--209		10	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
210--211		11	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
212--213		12	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
214--215	Summer 65	9	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
216--217		10	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
218--219		11	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6
220--221		12	260	4.6	260	4.6	260	4.6

* Determined by infrared IR scanning

TABLE 2
DETAILS OF SAMPLER AND RESULTS OF HUMAN TESTS IN WATER MILL POND, THREE MILE LAKE

MNT Sample Reference	Date Collected	Age Estimated	Green		Blue		White Tooth	
			In µg/g Co.	High pCl/g Co.	In µg/g Co.	High pCl/g Co.	In µg/g Co.	High pCl/g Co.
221	Spring 45	17	880	0.37	170	1.4	30	100
222	"	18	700	0.37	200	1.4	30	100
223	"	19	800	0.47	200	1.4	30	100
224	"	20	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
225	"	21	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
226	Autumn 45	22	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
227	"	23	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
228	"	24	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
229	"	25	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
230	Spring 46	26	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
231	"	27	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
232	"	28	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
233	"	29	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
234	"	30	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
235	"	31	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
236	Autumn 46	32	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
237	"	33	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
238	"	34	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
239	"	35	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
240	"	36	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
241	"	37	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
242	"	38	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
243	"	39	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
244	"	40	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
245	"	41	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
246	"	42	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
247	"	43	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
248	"	44	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
249	"	45	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
250	"	46	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
251	"	47	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
252	"	48	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
253	"	49	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
254	"	50	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
255	"	51	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
256	"	52	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
257	"	53	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
258	"	54	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
259	"	55	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
260	"	56	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
261	"	57	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
262	"	58	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
263	"	59	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
264	"	60	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
265	"	61	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
266	"	62	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
267	"	63	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
268	"	64	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
269	"	65	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
270	"	66	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
271	"	67	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
272	"	68	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
273	"	69	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
274	"	70	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
275	"	71	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
276	"	72	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
277	"	73	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
278	"	74	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
279	"	75	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
280	"	76	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
281	"	77	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
282	"	78	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
283	"	79	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
284	"	80	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
285	"	81	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
286	"	82	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
287	"	83	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
288	"	84	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
289	"	85	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
290	"	86	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
291	"	87	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
292	"	88	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
293	"	89	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
294	"	90	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
295	"	91	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
296	"	92	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
297	"	93	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
298	"	94	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
299	"	95	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
300	"	96	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
301	"	97	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
302	"	98	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
303	"	99	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100
304	"	100	200	0.34	200	1.4	30	100

¹ Determined by percent-01 counting

² Percent-01 counting analysis

Effect of Strontium-90 in Human Proximal Teeth

TABLE 12

DETAILS OF SAMPLES AND RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF 20-MAN HATCHES FROM AREAS WITH ABOVE, CLAY OR BELOW
MEAN ANNUAL RAINFALL. PRIMERLAND

SMTT Sample Number	Date Excavated	Age Estimated	Crown		Body		Whole Tomb	
			Gr. per Cu	Wt. per Cu	Gr. per Cu	Wt. per Cu	Gr. per Cu	Wt. per Cu
101	Spring 41	30	200	0	100	0	100	0
102	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
103	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
104	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
105	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
106	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
107	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
108	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
109	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
110	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
111	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
112	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
113	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
114	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
115	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
116	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
117	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
118	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
119	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
120	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
121	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
122	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
123	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
124	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
125	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
126	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
127	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
128	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
129	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
130	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
131	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
132	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
133	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
134	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
135	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
136	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
137	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
138	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
139	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
140	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
141	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
142	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
143	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
144	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
145	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
146	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
147	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
148	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
149	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
150	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
151	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
152	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
153	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
154	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
155	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
156	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
157	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
158	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
159	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
160	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
161	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
162	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
163	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
164	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
165	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
166	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
167	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
168	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
169	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
170	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
171	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
172	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
173	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
174	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
175	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
176	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
177	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
178	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
179	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
180	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
181	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
182	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
183	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
184	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
185	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
186	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
187	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
188	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
189	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
190	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
191	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
192	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
193	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
194	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
195	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
196	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
197	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
198	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
199	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0
200	"	11	200	0	100	0	100	0

101-110 Because of the small weight of sample the standard deviation was not large for a statistically valid to be applied

111-119 Insufficient sample for analysis

120-124 Insufficient sample for analysis. Because of the amount of material, was determined on the whole tomb sample only

125-129 Less in analysis

TABLE IV	
DIFFERENT SAMPLES YIELDING 15-16% LOSS/100 OF HUMAN TEETH FROM ALLIES WITH MORE THAN 60% LOSS	
MEAN ANNUAL RAINFALL	THIRD MEAN
100-150	1.0
150-200	1.0
200-250	1.0
250-300	1.0
300-350	1.0
350-400	1.0
400-450	1.0
450-500	1.0
500-550	1.0
550-600	1.0
600-650	1.0
650-700	1.0
700-750	1.0
750-800	1.0
800-850	1.0
850-900	1.0
900-950	1.0
950-1000	1.0
1000-1050	1.0
1050-1100	1.0
1100-1150	1.0
1150-1200	1.0
1200-1250	1.0
1250-1300	1.0
1300-1350	1.0
1350-1400	1.0
1400-1450	1.0
1450-1500	1.0
1500-1550	1.0
1550-1600	1.0
1600-1650	1.0
1650-1700	1.0
1700-1750	1.0
1750-1800	1.0
1800-1850	1.0
1850-1900	1.0
1900-1950	1.0
1950-2000	1.0
2000-2050	1.0
2050-2100	1.0
2100-2150	1.0
2150-2200	1.0
2200-2250	1.0
2250-2300	1.0
2300-2350	1.0
2350-2400	1.0
2400-2450	1.0
2450-2500	1.0
2500-2550	1.0
2550-2600	1.0
2600-2650	1.0
2650-2700	1.0
2700-2750	1.0
2750-2800	1.0
2800-2850	1.0
2850-2900	1.0
2900-2950	1.0
2950-3000	1.0
3000-3050	1.0
3050-3100	1.0
3100-3150	1.0
3150-3200	1.0
3200-3250	1.0
3250-3300	1.0
3300-3350	1.0
3350-3400	1.0
3400-3450	1.0
3450-3500	1.0
3500-3550	1.0
3550-3600	1.0
3600-3650	1.0
3650-3700	1.0
3700-3750	1.0
3750-3800	1.0
3800-3850	1.0
3850-3900	1.0
3900-3950	1.0
3950-4000	1.0
4000-4050	1.0
4050-4100	1.0
4100-4150	1.0
4150-4200	1.0
4200-4250	1.0
4250-4300	1.0
4300-4350	1.0
4350-4400	1.0
4400-4450	1.0
4450-4500	1.0
4500-4550	1.0
4550-4600	1.0
4600-4650	1.0
4650-4700	1.0
4700-4750	1.0
4750-4800	1.0
4800-4850	1.0
4850-4900	1.0
4900-4950	1.0
4950-5000	1.0
5000-5050	1.0
5050-5100	1.0
5100-5150	1.0
5150-5200	1.0
5200-5250	1.0
5250-5300	1.0
5300-5350	1.0
5350-5400	1.0
5400-5450	1.0
5450-5500	1.0
5500-5550	1.0
5550-5600	1.0
5600-5650	1.0
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5900-5950	1.0
5950-6000	1.0
6000-6050	1.0
6050-6100	1.0
6100-6150	1.0
6150-6200	1.0
6200-6250	1.0
6250-6300	1.0
6300-6350	1.0
6350-6400	1.0
6400-6450	1.0
6450-6500	1.0
6500-6550	1.0
6550-6600	

MUT Sample Reference	Date Interviewed	Age Interviewed	Cancer		AIDS		Whole Tumor	
			No. cells Co	1000 cells Co	No. cells Co	1000 cells Co	No. cells Co	1000 cells Co
756-171	January 82	22-23	200	0.04	200	0.1	200	1.1
756-188	January 82	22-23	200	0.04	200	0.1	200	1.1
756-189	January 82	24	—	—	—	0.0	—	0.0
761-142	—	25	—	0.0	—	0.0	200	0.0
761-144	—	26	—	0.0	—	—	200	0.0
761-151	January 82	27	200	0.0	200	0.0	200	0.0
766-177	—	28	—	0.0	—	—	200	0.0
766-178	—	28	—	0.0	—	—	200	0.0
766-181	—	28	—	0.0	—	0.0	200	0.0
767-182	—	28	—	0.0	—	0.0	200	0.0

[illegible]

NOTE: Because of small sample weight, the error in the reported enthalpy value may be as high as 25%.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors are deeply indebted first to the anonymous referees and those colleagues responsible for sampling and classifying the material used for analysis. The accuracy and care with which the steps of the procedure described are following from the way the study has been carried out. It is expected that similar data will permit individual interrelationships.

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PROTECTION OF THE PUBLIC IN RELATION TO USE OF RADIOACTIVE MATERIALS*

By C. D. de C. Hughes

A complete description of all Ministry of Defence (Naval) activities in this context is impossible in the circumstances. Apart from the natural limitations imposed on what is traditionally the 'White Service' security considerations have to be taken into account.

What is proposed in this short review of measures taken to protect the general public by the Navy Department is first an explanation of the general relationship of the Department to other Government Departments with Statutory powers and second the general responsibility for radiation safety. Later some specific problems will be described together with the means by which the necessary control is imposed in what there should be no potential radiation or accident cases.

Regulations

As a Government Department the MOD has had much to learn from many of the Statutory Instruments of recent years. This applies in particular to the Navy's major nuclear activities connected with the design, construction, operation and refuelling of nuclear propelled vessels — at the present time only submarines.

The three Acts under which regulations applicable in the civil field have been made are the Factories Act, the Radioactive Substances Act and the Nuclear Installations Act.

The first of these provides no features, created by the use of sealed sources and controlled substances. There are quite a few establishments deemed to be factories under the Act for instance all Naval Dockyards, in the UK, all Aircraft Repair Yards and parts of some establishments where activities such as handling are carried out. The regulations made under the Factories Act are necessarily referred to by the Ministry of Defence in these establishments for conventional use, destructive testing, radiography, storage of sources, etc. However, where the major potential hazard, even — in our Naval Dockyards — the sealed sources Regulations have not so far applied to processes covered by the original Ministry of Power Act, ie provision for the production of power by means of processes ancillary to that work[†]. Therefore in the Naval and Construction Yards where nuclear submarines are built and refuelled the Ministry of Labour Regulations for Sealed Sources are not automatically enforceable for work on marine reactors although they are for all other processes. Regulations under the Factories Act to limit work involving exposure to sources or sealed radioactive substances have only this year been introduced and the application of this are still under discussion.

*At the time this article was written, as a result of a meeting of the Society for Radiological Protection of the Northern Hemisphere on October 20, 1967, the distinguished and able John Day, the then Chairman of Employment and Productivity Committee of Labour has produced the following Regulations (Sealed Sources Regulations 1968) and the Statutory Instruments (Controlled Substances Regulations 1968) coming into force on November 15, 1968. Both of these laws, very interesting and valuable to the Department in their extremely simple and yet careful, although the emphasis on it these new Regulations are still under discussion the minimum that the Ministry of Labour (Radiation) will not do is to ensure that the new law is applied to all work on the construction of the Navy and the MOD Dockyards in the UK.

The Radioactive Substances Act which plays a major part in the control of radioisotopes, a vital potential source of hazard to the general public, contains a clause exempting the Crown from its provisions. But the Ministry of Defence (MoD) has equated an intention of playing the game as prescribed and in fact although not required to by law, all MoD establishments report through Head quarters their holdings of radioactive substances and when the question of disposal arises, with the agreement of the Ministry of Housing and Local Government to their proposals as if they were applying for an authorisation.

As far as the Ministry of Power's Act is concerned here again there is no requirement for the Navy to seek approval and be licensed as far as any of our reactors are concerned. Reactors for propulsion are specifically excluded from the Act and there is an additional Crown exemption from the need to obtain a licence. Thus there is no statutory control that can be exercised by the Ministry of Power over other non nuclear reactors. It had to be recognised that, on our land based reactors of which we have two:

For the transport and packaging of radioactive materials it was to satisfy and that the Navy is, under its own instructions (Defence Council Instructions (Royal Navy) 425 (1961) completely in step with the present civilian regulations having in 1955 adopted the International Atomic Energy Agency agreed procedures for packaging, labelling, etc.

This generally confused situation was first brought to light in 1966 when the Ministry of Labour regulations were in draft and after the publication in 1968 of the first Ministry of Power Act. The Minister of Defence (MoD) was then forced to act as *Admiratus* on behalf of a number of Ministers and issue his own Regulations. The first of these on the general lines of a Ministry of Power like Licence was issued in respect of the construction, handling and in Britain and was called the Special Administrative Site Regulations for Radiological Protection in Reactors in Potrooms.

Because of the numerous questions similar to those were raised to cover work on the Unusually Submersible Features of the Admiralty Research Test Establishment near the Naval Dockyards at Rosyth and Chatham for the construction of test of submersibles and for the *Nautilus* at Greenwich College.

In 1968 the situation in the Navy Department as a whole was regulated by the issue of a DC/NSM — one of the longest ever produced — which was in fact the first ever UK set of regulations for radiological protection which covered every aspect in one document. This was amended in 1969 to bring the transport and packaging sections right up to date and this year has been concerned with additional provisions to cover the medical and dental uses of ionising radiations.

Admiralty Department

Immediately after the Second World War the armed forces were preoccupied in the field of radiological protection with the problems that would arise in the event of nuclear warfare. In the Navy this situation continued well into the 1950s and the nuclear submarine programme got under way. In 1959 specifically for the submarine project a Safety Officer Nuclear Propulsion was appointed in deal

with these special health physics problems. However, a year or two ago, after the impact of the new Statutory Acts and Regulations that the Advisory Board began to set up the present organization. The following chart of responsibility which were made indicates generally the way in which the Advisory Board discharges its responsibilities.



MAJOR PROBLEMS

Generally speaking the only processes under Naval control which could potentially cause a hazard to the general public are, associated with the nuclear submarine programs. An added complication to the Navy's task for protecting the general public is that the nuclear system, the Pressurized Water Reactor (PWR), used in the submarine is unique in this country although a lot of experience has been gained from its use in the United States.

There are in the main two problems of public protection which arise in connection with the PWR system and these are related on the one hand to the major accidents which could involve release of radioactivity beyond the boundaries of a given site and on the other to primary accident and other waste disposal.

1. *Protection of the Public:* The choice of building yards (Barrow or Groton) still depended not only on conventional reactor using criteria, but also on such matters as the expertise of construction in the construction of submarines in vessels. Thus it is that the chosen yards are apparently very close to major centers of population, a situation which — at the time of choice — could not arise in connection with the usage of civil power reactors which have a higher power rating and are not mobile. Properties of the points in these situations and at hazards in populated British ports anywhere in the world in line with under a common policy which to a great extent is in line with the general UK policy for reactor siting.

Thus, while the submarine is in a building yard (Barrow or Groton) and close to heavily populated areas, only construction and testing is carried out. No maintenance, refueling or core changes are carried out there. Restrictions are applied to the core inventory for radioactive losses during reactor testing so that should a Maximum Credible Accident (MCA) occur, the release of radioactivity will be the minimum compatible with the current Medical Research Council recommendations. Furthermore constraints are being taken care by installing water sprays and sound out of shot like constraints overall with a scrubber or filtration system to reduce the potential hazard even further than has been acceptable for the last few years.

As the Naval Reactor Dockyards (Barnaby and Chatham) and at the two nuclear submarine operating bases (Blyth Lock and Chatham) the situation is much less onerous as the separation distances from the local population are much more favourable.

All facilities in populated areas approved for use by operating nuclear sub-marines there is an exclusion distance of at least 400 yards from locally designated members of the general public.

In connection with the projects of the United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority and the Central Electricity Generating Board a Little Boreham Commission under the Chairmanship of the Naval Commander-in-Chief, as above, sees the site happens to be, has been established on the Clyde River Blyth Lock and Chatham, at Blyth Chatham Barracks in Faversham, and Richborough. The requirements are standard. The functions are to protect the waste, aimed at the primary purpose of ensuring the public of the safety of the system and ensuring that if a MCA should occur, rapid, efficient for appropriate actions are clearly delineated and understood.

Having outlined the first major problem as to what the Naval reactor programme is concerned with protecting the general public, it is now necessary to describe the second — or only other — one. This is radioactive waste disposal.

2. *Radio Waste* To start with it must be realized that the Pressurized Water Reactor is like no other system in general use in the UK for power production. It is really a closed system while operating — there is for instance no continuous leakage of large volumes of coolant, e.g. tons of carbon dioxide per day as in the case of the gas-cooled reactors, and no continuous discharge of Argon³⁷ as occurs with air cooling of reactors. Thus there is no requirement for continuous monitoring on the scale adopted by the UKAEA or DOE for activity released to the atmosphere.

- There are in effect only two sources of radioactive waste:
 - (a) primary coolant which circulates through the core and
 - (b) the health physics laboratory on board.

Of these the primary coolant is the only source of waste which might, on a very low level, be detected in significant quantities.

In normal circumstances radioactivity arises in the primary coolant from three separate mechanisms, as a result of its repeated passage through the core where neutron interactions occur:

- (i) by the production of Argon³⁷
- (ii) by the generation of the fission product neptunium from neutron contamination by fission material at the surface of the fuel elements.
- (iii) by the activation of the products of normal corrosion occurring in the metal piping system.

Amounts of radioactive Argon³⁷ rising are very small. It is released at rare intervals when the system is depressured — at the most twice a year. Compared with amounts of Argon³⁷ released continuously by air cooled reactors, the PWR gives rise to wholly insignificant amounts. Further, the amounts which do occur

are made deliberately and only take place at the operating level, and both of these are specifically far away from large centers of population. This never poses no problem as far as the general public is concerned.

The second source of radioactivity is coolant given rise in the course of time to extremely low levels of fission product contamination of the primary coolant. Suffice it to say that under normal operation these amounts are counterbalanced by the extremely excessive product activity which itself is very low. Under conditions which could give rise to high levels of fission product activity — even a very small breach of the fuel element cladding — it is enough to say that this activity is contained within the circuit and discharged later in a manner agreed to be safe by all the competent authorities.

The third source of activity is the normal process of corrosion which occurs in any metallic piping system. As this corrosion involves the unstable particulates are calculated through the core where neutron activation occurs. The radioactivity formed is naturally increased with distance in the piping from which the coolant and its various components are made; these piping most frequently being critical at the outlet of Core 1, Mainsteam and Hot.

These corrosion products appear in two particular situations in the system or plant under the agreement and also in the six challenge items which it used to assess in monitoring the coolant in a correct pH.

A hazard to the general public can only arise therefore when the coolant is discharged to the environment. Current arrangements are for this usually to occur direct to shore installations for treatment prior to final disposal of very low level activity liquid to the environment. In certain cases discharges are made to special tanks in order to be the environment, while if there disposal is not feasible the liquid is taken far out to sea for final discharge.

MEASURES TO DEAL WITH THE POTENTIAL HAZARDS

The Reactor Accident

The measures now planned are in general the same as those existing at the major Atomic Energy Authority and Central Electricity Generating Board sites. These rank of the form and discharge has its own constant monitoring equipment and special monitoring team equipped to determine whether a release has occurred gauge the rate of the release as dangerous etc. and by repeated surveys provide data by which the civil and local civil authorities take their preplanned action. There has for instance been such a case at Dungeness since 1962 to cover the Holy Loch. These teams are provided by the Navy with a naval officer in charge of a number of changes all trained for various monitoring with specific reference to monitoring for the radioactivity of iodine.

In addition to the major personnel at the main operational level and the Naval 'Nuclear' Directorate, we also have a central accident monitoring organization known as the Naval Emergency Monitoring Organisation (NEMO) now a part of

the Naval Radiological Protection Service (NRPS) with its headquarters in the Naval Naval Medical School at Bethesda.

The expertise available can be deployed, as may be required, to any part of the world under the control of the Navy Department Headquarters.

Waste Disposal From Marine Propulsion Plants

Gaseous radioactive waste poses no problem. There is no potential hazard to the general public. The isotopes are insignificant and it is an inert noble gas. Argon is in any case not metabolized.

Solid radioactive waste is, very small both in volume and in specific activity. Nearly all of it arises from radiological procedures carried out in the health physics laboratories on board the submarines. Usually it is bagged up, weighed and disposed in deep-sea can (1 800 l volume at most) but more often retained on board and packed in a sturdy lining for conventional disposal by agreement with the appropriate authorities.

Liquid radioactive effluent is usually piped ashore, or to tanks in a tender. If it is shore the naval facilities for waste treatment render it harmless. If piped to a tender it is pumped to sea, again far from land in deep-sea and away from any known fishing zone. Daily subsequently it is permissible to dump coolant direct to the nearest convenient ocean. The latter course is never taken with radioactive contaminated water.

To safeguard the public's interests the Navy, through the NRPS, operates an environmental surveillance programme by the collection of sea or bottom sediments and of marine biological samples. These are all monitored by low background scintillation gamma spectrometry in the NRPS Laboratories. In addition regular surveys of the beaches in the vicinity of bases and dockyards are carried out using portable equipment operating in the lower ranges.

All this work is carried out with the full knowledge and agreement of the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, the Ministry of Housing and Local Government and the Scottish Department, who receive copies of the results obtained. All areas are monitored before they become operational. In every instance a detailed radiological investigation is made in the area in order to establish any likely fixed water. So far with much vigilance there is no evidence that defence collaboration is in any way involved in producing a potential public hazard.

Minor Problems

Outside the nuclear propulsion field the Navy's problems are small and of little import so far as the Navy Department's public protection programme is concerned. As already explained the Navy Department agrees and complies with the general provisions of existing Acts and Regulations. The greatest source of potential exposure to ionizing radiation is industrial radiography work functioning and the use of licensed aircrew a pace second. Neither of these poses any problems of public protection.

Measures to Control

It is the Navy's policy to ensure, through the Naval Radiological Protection Service, all the services required of a proper radiological protection organisation under ion conditions. Thus through the Service the following are effected:

- a. Health physics surveillance of planned design and procedures (the cheapest and in reality it is essential safety in design)
- b. Training of operators (competent persons, etc.)
- c. Continued surveillance and education of competent persons and others in the field of health physics
- d. Continued photoluminescence service (for the Navy and RAF) and control pollution records (this of course provides a further means of surveillance of them out to the field)
- e. Surveys of working and general environment
- f. Official enquiries as the Navy's nuclear organisation

These are the direct operational tasks. But they are complemented by additional responsibilities for covering the introduction of radioisotopes into clinical use and for research for development and research in health physics techniques and procedures, and for co-operation and co-ordination with other authorities in the UK and elsewhere in the Navy's service.

THE RED CELL AS AN INDICATOR OF THERMAL DAMAGE*

By Stella Buzay

Although the human red cell is highly specialized it can nevertheless be considered as a useful indicator of thermal damage. Its specialization in the whole form has led to a preferential loss of aerobic glycolysis so that according to de Lencastre and President (1961) over 80 per cent of the cell's glucose is degraded via the Embden-Meyerhof pathway. Such cells therefore isolate the effect of loss on the utilization of fatty acid compounds from that on the *de-novo* synthesis of the latter. Ready availability of the raw material offers an added advantage.

The glucose part of the energy made available in the human erythrocyte for glycolysis is utilized to transport potassium against a concentration gradient. This function is closely associated with the membrane adenosine triphosphatase as has been shown by Fox *et al.* (1960) and requires adenosine triphosphatase (Wickham 1958). Any changes in the membrane composition would therefore be likely to affect the potassium movement. Fowler (1959, 1958) has investigated the desphosphorylation and also made a quantitative study of fragmentation control spots upon the heat damage of red cells. Such cells have also lost their normal plasmolysis as was shown by Tseul (1962). The latter could be caused by changes in the ionic arrangement of water molecules associated with the membrane proteins — Diamond and Scheraga (1962) which is essential for the normal function of enzymes.

Enzyme concentrations would suggest that heat exposure would lead to a temporary increase in the activity of some or all the enzyme systems involved in the anaerobic breakdown of glucose which is also closely linked with the cell's ATP content. It was therefore hoped that cell hydration, potassium movement, infusion of leucosine and glucose 6 phosphate dehydrogenase and the pattern of glucose consumption and ATP levels would show changes. A summary of such studies which have been reported in detail elsewhere are presented below.

Materials

Human blood from haematologically normal individuals was collected without citrate into 10 heparin — saline 0.1 mg/ml. All samples were put into ice water immediately after collection. Large pools of either Group O or Group A blood from at least five individuals were prepared and the "buffy" coat removed.

Methods

A. The Heating of Whole Blood

Paired samples were distributed in 2 ml. microtitre cells Eppin bottles and

* The subject matter of this paper was presented at a Symposium on Research in Haematology at the Royal Free Hospital, London in December 1962.

heated for 20 minutes in a water bath at the desired temperature. To arrest the action of heat the samples were immersed into water at 20°C.

B. The Determination of Red Cell Water

The method employed was a slight modification of the Karl Fisher method adopted by Pryor (1963) in the determination of water in biological fluids.

The cell water was calculated from separate determinations of whole blood water, plasma water and the packed cell volume. The latter was determined on the Hawksley Micro Haematocrit centrifuge. No corrections were made for trapped plasma. The method used gave a mean red cell water concentration of $66.0 \pm 0.3\%$.

C. The Measurement of Potassium Flux

Whole blood was labelled before heating with $10\mu\text{Ci } ^{42}\text{K}$ in sodium carrier solution (Amersham) for each fluid of blood used and the concentration of the isotope was determined in the separated plasma in a well type liquid sample scintillation counter. Whole blood and plasma potassium concentrations were determined with an FHL flame photometer. These values and the packed cell volume estimate were used to calculate the rates — and intracellular specific activities of potassium.

D. The Determination of Glucose

Glucose was determined by a glucose oxidase method subsequent to the deproteinization with zinc sulphate and sodium hydroxide. Assuming equal partition of cell and plasma glucose the cellular glucose was calculated from the whole blood values and the packed cell volumes, and finally expressed as $\mu\text{mole glucose released per cell per ml per hour}$ — the latter being calculated from the observed 20 minute value.

E. Hexokinase Activity

Hexokinase catalyses the transfer of the terminal phosphate group of ATP to glucose in the presence of Mg ions, resulting in the formation of glucose-6-phosphate. This reaction was measured by the determination of the released cellular phosphate. At the desired time any hexokinase still present was inactivated by the formation of an EDTA-Mg complex. The method used was based on the one described by Sobel (1958) for hexokinase activity determination in microbial systems. The enzyme activity after heating was expressed with reference to that of the control (unheated) kept at 10°C.

F. The Determination of ATP in Whole Blood

ATP is only present in the cells. The cellular values were therefore obtained by calculation from the whole blood findings and the packed cell volumes.

The adenine triphosphate was oxidized enzymatically by a sequence of two reactions in which usually 3 phosphoglycerate is phosphorylated by ATP in the presence of phosphoglycerate kinase and Mg^{++} ions. The 1,3 diphosphoglycerate is then reduced in the presence of NADH. ATP and glyceraldehyde phosphate dehydrogenase to glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate. Since NADH is oxidized to NAD and any change in the ATP concentration originally present is quantitatively reflected by a decrease in NADH concentration.

The method used in this study was essentially that described by Boyer *et al.* (1954).

RESULTS

Whole blood was heated for 30 minutes at temperatures ranging from 37°C to 55°C. As shown in Figure 1 a slight increase in cell hydration occurred already at 40°C. This rate of increase in hydration was maintained up to 45°C but was almost doubled between 45°C and 50°C. Higher temperatures apparently decreased cell hydration. This was probably due to the destruction of the more heat sensitive group of cells.

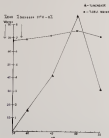


Figure 1. Changes in red cell hydration caused by heating whole blood. Expressed as % cell water and change from the 37°C value.

As suggested above, changes in hydration could be expected to affect the red cell's potassium transport as whole membrane located enzymes participate.

Figure 2 shows the mean values of five separate experiments in which the active transport rate of potassium ions was measured. It is evident that temperature, compatible with life, markedly modifies potassium transport. Between 40°C and 45°C the transport rate was almost doubled. Above that temperature the increase was not so pronounced. Nevertheless raising the temperature of the blood from 37°C to 50°C caused a 2.5 fold increase in active potassium transport.

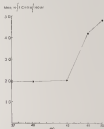


Figure 1. The effect of time on the transport rate of potassium in red cells. Cells pre-treated at temp. -1 and incubated in 10°C for five hours.

Such changes in potassium transport must be reflected in the rate of glycolysis since 90 per cent of the red cell's energy is utilized for this purpose.

Figure 3 shows the mean values of six separate experiments. While potassium transport was little affected by temperatures below 45°C glucose breakdown increased linearly from 17" to 40". Above that temperature the glucose breakdown was very slightly decreased. Nevertheless glycolysis increased between 40°C and 50°C about 2.5 fold — an increase comparable to that observed for the potassium transport.

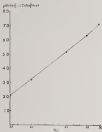


Figure 2. Glucose consumption of red cells heated in three oven phases. Δ represents $\mu\text{mole}/100$ cells/hour and calculated from the 30-minute value.

The increase in glucose utilization necessitates increased hexokinase activity. The results of this investigation are shown in Figure 4 in relation to the enzyme's activity at 37°C . Somewhat surprisingly the activity increase far exceeded the requirements necessary for the increased glucose utilization. Between 37°C and 43°C a 2.5-fold increase was observed. Flaring between 43°C and 48°C shows values that exceed that temperature. There was some evidence of oxygen involvement.

Both the hexokinase reaction and potassium transport require the energy released by the hydrolysis of an energy rich bond of adenosine triphosphate.

Figure 5 shows the pattern in red cell ATP levels obtained after heating. The slight increase between 22°C and 40°C is of interest. Above this temperature the levels fall but up to 48°C the decrease in level does not appear to have kept pace with the requirements suggested by the increased glucose consumption and potassium transport.

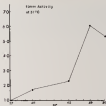


Figure 4 Changes in hexokinase activity at the end of 20 minutes heating at temperature = t



Figure 5 Percentage changes in cellular ATP levels at the end of 20 minutes heating at temperature = t

DISCUSSION

It has been shown above that heating caused a slight but nevertheless significant increase in cell hydration. Dore (1961) has fractionated the cell population after heating to 50°C into age groups and shows that the hydration of the oldest cells increased by 50 per cent compared with an about 5 per cent increase in approximately 50 per cent of all cells. This latter is no doubt the important fraction since these cells will survive for about two months at the incubation. The increase in cell hydration will be accompanied by a gain in cellular volume and a corresponding loss in cell potassium. The change in cation partition leads to a stimulation of the sodium and potassium sensitive adenosine triphosphatase (Whitton 1962) and hence to the premature exhaustion of the red cell's ATP reserves and accelerated cell death.

Active transport of potassium was shown to be little disturbed up to 45°C but significantly increased at 49°C — a temperature which corresponds to a sharp increase in cell hydration and a significant increase in intracellular potassium (Dore 1964, which clearly indicated increased efflux. Morsh (1965) suggested that the normal potassium efflux was about as fast as the influx. Under normal conditions a steady state is maintained while under heat stress, once so much potassium appeared in the plasma at 49°C than was observed later.

Cellular adenosine triphosphatase consists of at least two components and seems two components. Data fitting on the basis of the results of experiments in the presence or absence of ouabain suggests that heat usually stimulates both forms of the enzyme while higher temperatures only stimulated the sodium component leading therefore to an enzyme pattern comparable to that of red cells in herbivory splenectomy (Folano et al. 1962).

The increase in glycolytic substrate levels, in magnitude the energy which would be required to cope with the increase in the active potassium transport.

As has been discussed above the observed cellular specific activity of potassium comprises at least two components and any measure of change in specific activity is only the resultant composite picture which can also be obtained by suitably balanced several fold increases in the components involved.

The variable increase in basophilic activity although more than adequate for glucose metabolism is somewhat surprising since the enzyme because of its normal low activity, has been considered to be rate limiting. Such limiting activity may be due to the presence of inhibitory substances as has been suggested by Christensen et al. (1960) or inhibition of its synthesis of red cell haemoglobin.

The decrease in cellular adenosine triphosphatase levels is not surprising because of the hyperactivity of all systems requiring energy. Somewhat unexpected was the increase in 49°C and the relatively small reduction in ATP levels, subsequently. The reasons studied reported above would account of ATP. The observed fall in cellular ATP levels was however less than expected. It seems therefore not unreasonable to suppose that the regeneration of ATP at least temporarily extended its half-life. The irreversible breakdown of ATP to ADP and hypoxanthine should have led to an accumulation of the latter. This step was however not investigated.

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TREATMENT OF VENEREAL DISEASES IN THE ROYAL NAVY

By Frederick E. Williams

The treatment of venereal diseases in the Navy is very often the responsibility of junior medical officers who may had their first acquaintance with a case of syphilis under the microscope and a lot of complaining through a shortening experience. For many of them, previous experience prior to entry is limited to seeing an occasional venereal discharge and possibly a chancre in the 'General Clinic'.

In civilian practice venereal diseases are almost always treated by a specialist. In the Navy circumstances are such that the majority are not. The latter thus provides an ideal opportunity for performing the duties of a specialist which would not be available outside the Service. But a reluctance to accept the responsibility of a specialist and not treat these diseases judiciously especially in view of their possible physical, psychological and social consequences.

The handbook on the treatment of venereal diseases (R.E. 711) can easily be consulted and if followed ensures adequate treatment. This study is a review of 300 random case histories (P Med 4) involving 117 cases of venereal diseases and an assessment of the treatment given.

Method

These hundred sets of medical documents were searched for venereal case notes (P Med 4) and relevant information extracted (case information was obtained from charts but it is not relevant to this article). Eighty-eight had not a main venereal infection representing a total of 137 cases. A classification of these is

Gonorrhoea	66
N.S.D.	77
Syphilis	4
Chancroid	3
Herpes	1
Lymph.	1
Unknown	5
TOTAL	
	137

The three unknown cases were:

- Ulceration treated on board on R.F.A. which responded to an injection.
 - Described as a yellow discharge on the second but no further note.
 - Ulceration treated with penicillin but no slide taken.
- A.W.R. has had been done in all cases or had more except in the three above.

Treatment

	Total	Failures
Penicillin	55	1
Tetracyclines	1	—
Sulpha	6	3
Spectomycin	2	—
Strep + Sulpha	2	—
Penic + Strep	2	—
Quinacrin	1	—

Although only one failure is recorded in the 153 first cases treated with penicillin there are recorded as progressing to N S U.

Non-Specific Gonorrhea

Treatment	Total	Failures
Tetracyclines	44	8
Sulphonamides	15	12
Spectomycin	1	2
Strep + Sulphonamides	8	4
Strep + Sulpha + Penicillin	1	1
Min. Pen. Cit	4	—
Aspirin	2	—
Tetracycline + Strep	1	—
Erythromycin	1	1
Sulphonamides + Penicillin	1	1

Tetracycline was seen to be the most popular and in these 44 cases, gave a success rate of 82 per cent (36).

Discharge

The four cases of syphilis were uniformly treated at the special center and the three cases of chancroid responded to sulphonamides.

Follow up and Documentation

The recorded cases shortcomings. Out of the 143 cases of gonorrhea and nine specific urethritis, 21 per cent (30) were not treated more than once and 6 were not seen after the initial visit.

Only 15 gonorrhea managers were carried out as a test of case, 8 at the special treatment center and 7 by the author.

Accurate documentation was a rare finding. Apart from a description of the discharge (which was not always given), only very rarely was mention made of a physical examination. Description of the sexual habits was often confusing and the diagnosis of G.C. and N S U from one visit seems the realm of prophecy. Very often no diagnosis was recorded.

DISCUSSION

Particularly for W.R. was carried out in all but three cases. Follow up W.R. were not always done.

Treatment

(a) Gonorrhea

Penicillin usually in the form of procaine penicillin varying from 0.5 to 1.2 mega units was the choice in 15 out of 48 cases. The reporting of only one failure is open to question in some of the 15 recorded as progressing to N.S.U. were in fact probably penicillin failures. The failure rate on procaine penicillin about 15-18 per cent (Warren 1964). 11.4 per cent out of 2284 cases using 0.6 mega units, 15 per cent of 284 cases using 0.8 mega units (Warren 1964). Penicillin treatment with a higher dosage would have been successful in most cases.

Penicillin is still the treatment of choice, either (a) 1.2 mega units procaine or (b) Topleys single injection 1.25 mega units (Warren 1964) showed only 7 per cent failure (out of 80 cases). Failure should be followed by a higher dosage, e.g., Topleys 3.5 mega units or crystalline 3 mega units b.i.d. for 3 days (Evans 1965).

Penicillin resistance or allergy is treated with broad spectrum antibiotics e.g., tetracycline (Williams, Rane and Carter, 1967; Crooks 1967).

(b) Non-Specific Urethritis

Tetracyclines were used in 44 out of 77 cases and gave an overall cure rate of 82 per cent comparing well with results in clinical trials. Although only 13 cases had urophosphates alone it does indicate their efficacy in the disease when used alone.

Broad spectrum antibiotics are the treatment of choice (Crooks and Rowbotham 1967; Morton and Rand, 1957) although tetracycline and urophosphates together have a cure rate of about 80 per cent and are effective (Kutsumi, 1960). Most people would consider well per cent a placebo although some fairly good results have been obtained by Fowler (1966).

The biggest difficulty (using more radical efforts will be the existence of relapse and re-infection in N.S.U. cases. Those from a different partner apparently respond to a change in drug, those from the same partner usually respond to the same drug (Myerson 1967).

Documentation

There should be as full and accurate as possible a record of the subject of diagnosis before treatment is started. Therefore the diagnosis should be recorded clearly a full physical examination should be done and in small steps there should be simple case for this. At least a general examination is essential and the findings should also be recorded. In very few documents was any reference made to sexual occupation.

Follow-up

The cases mentioned above where an initial one review was carried out can only be depicted. A case of proctitis should be seen after 3-4 days and then weekly for 2-4 weeks, with routine examinations for muffled discharge and a 2 glass test of the urine.

For P.B.U. they should be reviewed similarly every week for 3-4 weeks. After this time in all cases an examination of the prostate should be carried out. The performance of prostate massage is adequately described in text books (King and Neel, 1964; Cantwell, 1965). Normal fluid should contain no more than 5-6 pus cells/high power field. If it contains more than 10/H.P.F. and/or clumping of cells is present then prostatitis can be diagnosed (Olson, 1958). In these cases the 2 glass test is no guide to the presence or absence of proctitis.

In this review 2 cases of prostatitis had records of venereal infection 12 H. most recently and 3 presented with symptoms suggestive of prostatitis after a similar period. Pre-confirmatory tests were carried out. *Chlamydia trachomatis* which were described as benign, covering over several months had not been traced up-stream to the prostate as the focus of infection. Another point in favour of venereal prostatic massage is that it restores a vital mechanism and possibly the mechanism of sexual response) disease.

CONCLUSION

The review of prostatitis by non-specialists has shown that venereal disease is the cause in far the main part adequately treated but the necessity of conspicuous treatment and follow-up is stressed. It is hoped that this paper brings out in the discussion only for its simplicity as a low residual effect, based both on responsibility of treating venereal disease.

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WHITE CELL COUNTS IN HUMAN SEMINAL FLUID IN THE DIAGNOSIS OF PROSTATITIS

By Frederick E. Wilhoit

This paper is an evaluation of the findings of white cell counts in seminal fluid (WCSF) in 19 patients with prostatitis.

Method

The diagnosis of prostatitis was made by examination of the prostatic fluid, a finding of more than 10 pus cells/H.F.F. with clumping of cells being taken as evidence of prostatitis (Davis, 1935). Although not everyone would agree with the value of prostatic fluid findings (Chartman, 1955), 15 of the 19 cases symptoms were prostatic which resolved on treatment and 4 of the cases were referred to a specialist who confirmed the diagnosis. Microscopic sperm examination was normal in all cases except one (J.V.).

White cell counts of the seminal fluid were performed as described by Morton (1964) with modifications. A specimen of seminal fluid was obtained by masturbation or coitus interruptus and examined within 2 hours of collection. A glass chamber was used that was felt justifiable as a sperm count, was not being underused and the possibility of cold shock was not relevant (Shurtliff Smith, 1963). The count was carried out in the same manner as for a white cell count of blood, but was first diluted with an equal volume of spermatozoa countmedium fluid (1 ml Formatec 300 Medium Inactivation) to 100 ml with distilled water (Kleiner and Sawyer, 1942). Further dilution as necessary to enable correct counting of cells was done with normal saline. The count was carried out on a Neubauer chamber. The results were calculated allowing for appropriate dilution factors, as the number of cells per ml. This may could easily be performed even on a small slide.

Cases History and Findings

- | | |
|--------------|--|
| D.S. 24 yrs. | Prostatitis diagnosed on routine follow-up of N.S.U.
at previous N.S.U.
W.C.S.F.—2 million/ml |
| J.E. 30 yrs. | Presented with pain in the groin, testicular pain and slight dysuria.
Symptoms present 10 months. Prostatic massage (Pm.) revealed prostatitis.
Prostatic glands bled and soft-seal spinaldysia positive
W.C.S.F.—40 million/ml |
| J.V. 34 yrs. | Psychosocial abnormalities.
Subsequently developed pus cells in semen.
Pm. showed prostatitis.
W.C.S.F.—36 million/ml |
| A.S. 25 yrs. | Presented with dysuria, frequency and nocturia.
Pm. showed prostatitis.
at previous N.S.U.
W.C.S.F.—6 million/ml |

R.B. 32 yrs.	Presented with coproptery infection and dysuria Pen. showed prostatic Previous history of cystitis W.C.S.P.—1 million/ml
J.L. 26 yrs.	Presented with low back pain Pen. showed prostatitis Prostate treated three years previously W.C.S.P.—14 million/ml
R.W. 31 yrs.	Presented with intermittent morning urethral discharge Pen. showed prostatitis all previous N.S.U. W.C.S.P.—1 million/ml
L.H. 39 yrs.	Presented with penile warts Referred Pen. showed prostatitis all previous diagnosed W.C.S.P.—4 million/ml
P.C. 34 yrs.	Penile warts Referred Pen. showed prostatitis No previous history W.C.S.P.—20 million/ml
R.H. 39 yrs.	Penile warts Pen. all beds dry W.C.S.P.—12 million/ml Srinivasan Pen. revealed prostatitis all previous N.S.U.

SUMMARY

Taking the normal level as below 1 million/ml and a level above 5 million/ml as significant (Martin, 1955) all 10 cases were significant. The five cases below 10 million/ml had been on treatment in the case of the onset.

In the case of R.W. the W.C.S.P. indicated disease present before prostate treatment obtained for confirmation.

The routine prostate massage in the case of penile warts is part of another project.

CONCLUSION

Although the number of cases is too small to be of statistical significance, the results do indicate that the W.C.S.P. is a valuable auxiliary test in the diagnosis of prostatitis. The test is simple and easily performed even colored a small drop and the normal level is often more easily obtained than prostate fluid.

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Letters to the Editor

101

Acceptance, Rejection or Prevention

Recent article, and Editorial comments on the Service magazine prompt the writing of this letter.

In view of the current emphasis on manpower in the Navy, advice is sought on the propriety of selecting for promotion discharge those personnel who have displayed overt signs of personal inadequacy.

Under compassionate turndown resulting in cancelled draft (opportunity-repeated references to N/P agencies and lowered medical category together with associated disciplinary lapses, etc) the option now lies in mind.

Such personnel pose drafting and administrative problems apart from proper use to their worth to the Royal Navy. In some cases although the man may himself be a worthwhile member of the Service, his wife can so far out-weigh create an atmosphere in which neither the individual nor the Service has any prospect of mutual advantage.

It is thought that the present issue provides an opportunity to have a clear out of this dead wood, but it is open to question whether this discharge should be by avoiding it in 'Unserviceable'. The latter would seem to be the more appropriate description of such persons.

Would any of your contributors or readers care to comment? These suggestions are put forward solely to stimulate discussion but in so far as they may be thought to reflect an opinion, it is sincerely that of the writer.

Yours faithfully,

JOHN TRAVERS MORGAN

Surgeon Captain RN

(Surgeon Captain Lamb was invited to reply to the above Editor.)

102

I have to admit that I have misquoted only I have been asked to reply to Surgeon Captain Morgan's letter about 'Acceptance, Rejection or Prevention'. Can it be because I am known to be a medical 'square'?

He has highlighted a problem that will be with us so long as the Navy puts so much emphasis on Welfare and so little on solving one's own personal problems. I consider that the Service must face up to the fact that there even exist, but in my opinion far more of them should be dealt with by the Executive - most of them are primarily a 'Discard' and not a medical matter and only become medical after the Executive have tried to sort them out.

It is not true we stopped giving psychiatric labels to *very small* (incompetent and going mad) sailors, and how we made them understand this (also how under this a voluntary contract when joining the Royal Navy and had illness got in the way of it).

It is not true we stopped being blacklisted (and blinder at it when set by disorganised women who are too immature even to sympathise, managing with their husbands are away, but nevertheless know when their married that some separation was inevitable).

It is not true we closed the age at which marriage allowance is paid and so discourage the almost casual alliances that often take place at an age when neither husband nor wife can be considered sexually mature whereas their physical potency may be!

Sometimes, when looking at my swimming gear here in the strong, nerve I think back to the Navy before the war. I served that was possibly concerned and efficient, and at which the words *compassionate* and *without being without heart* and there were no psychiatrists and few psychics, even. But perhaps we didn't recognise the states which they appeared? There were the days when moral handsets were hardly noticed or paid by the authorities, but I am not convinced that marriages were any less happy for that and there was certainly a much more healthy attitude of helping oneself in difficulty and not running to Welfare at the first hint of trouble.

If this letter gives the impression of gloom or even suggests to some that I am a psychiatrist like myself, there is a basic reason one should always remember — that about 90 per cent of one's fish fry chance is drawn from about 25 per cent of the Ship's Company, having 25 of that one million ones, the other 75 per cent and they are still for sale of the mark.

In conclusion, if my remarks, possibly discussed or even anger, they will have served a purpose. Because whatever the outcome, few medical officers will deny that a problem exists. And by the time that my slaves finish, I shall be safely on the *Rancho Loco*!

Yours faithfully

FRANCIS H. LAMB

Surgeon Captain, RNR

While the course of the manuscript was somewhat irregular, the Editor Dr. A. J. A. Cook, in fact, did his utmost to get it into the hands of the printer. The book is a very good one, and it is a pity that it should have been published in a form which is so imperfect. The book is a very good one, and it is a pity that it should have been published in a form which is so imperfect.

COLOUR IN MAN AND MONKEY. By Percy M. Butler. Pp. 100. 2s. 6d. London: Lloyd-Luke, 1936. (Lloyd-Luke's Library, Series 10, No. 10.)

Although, as far as I know, it is the only book on this subject, the book is a very good one. It is a pity that it should have been published in a form which is so imperfect.

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TREATMENT OF ACUTE CHRONIC DYSPEPSIA. By Henry M. Butler and A. J. A. Cook. Pp. 100. 2s. 6d. London and Edinburgh: P. B. L. Lloyd-Luke, 1936. (Lloyd-Luke's Library, Series 10, No. 10.)

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The book is a carefully planned and detailed and well-organized presentation of the many people who contributed to the development of the scientific method as applied to human behavior, with a special emphasis on the development of the scientific method as applied to human behavior, with a special emphasis on the development of the scientific method as applied to human behavior.

100

Blair, W. *Microbiology in Veterinary Medicine*. 2nd edn. Philadelphia: Saunders, 1984. Pp. 512. \$15.95. ISBN 0-7216-1250-0.

the 1980s, the concept of the "new" or "postmodern" architecture has been widely discussed. The term "postmodern" has been used in a variety of contexts, but in the context of architecture, it has been used to describe a style that is characterized by a rejection of the traditional principles of modernism. This style is often characterized by a mix of historical and contemporary elements, and a focus on form and function. The term "postmodern" has been used to describe a wide range of architectural styles, from the work of architects like Robert Venturi and Denise Scott Brown to the work of architects like Frank Gehry and Norman Foster. The term "postmodern" has also been used to describe a style of architecture that is characterized by a rejection of the traditional principles of modernism, and a focus on form and function. This style is often characterized by a mix of historical and contemporary elements, and a focus on form and function. The term "postmodern" has been used to describe a wide range of architectural styles, from the work of architects like Robert Venturi and Denise Scott Brown to the work of architects like Frank Gehry and Norman Foster.

For example, the level of growth in the fundamental accounts (the sum of exports, the current account, and the balance of payments) for the three regions, measured as the percentage change from 1990 to 1994, is shown in Table 1 and plotted in Figure 1.

[illegible]

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When a changing and varied life is lived, the individual is not only a more complete person, but also a more complete citizen. The individual is not only a more complete person, but also a more complete citizen.

Given problems, a data series has been established and its growth conditions and problems are used to formulate the support given by the school. In the context of the school, a new management team will be created to manage it, and as many more schools as possible will be created. The new series of schools will be established. The new series will be established in the school.

The authors' experience and limited knowledge, as far as the methodology of the study is concerned, is the main and simple limitation. However, business support for the study, all the participants as shown by the telephone interviews, group meetings, and plans for a future study.

These publications significantly provide a step in going beyond a small circle of specialists and begin to make some identified trends.

[illegible][illegible]

What is the new approach to questions about a 'robustly' growing or persisting? We are going to adopt a distinction (due to and generalized from) of developmental and the end that tracks the processes themselves, the 'process' measure. Instead of a test to see the extent of participation of the target words and relations (either internal-structure for *has*, *is*, *like*, *knows*, *is a* and so on) and the operations *contain* and *is a* itself.

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Reprints: American Dental, Vol 10, no 10 (Oct), 1978, pp 11-12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125, 126, 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 154, 155, 156, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 167, 168, 169, 170, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183, 184, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193, 194, 195, 196, 197, 198, 199, 200, 201, 202, 203, 204, 205, 206, 207, 208, 209, 210, 211, 212, 213, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218, 219, 220, 221, 222, 223, 224, 225, 226, 227, 228, 229, 230, 231, 232, 233, 234, 235, 236, 237, 238, 239, 240, 241, 242, 243, 244, 245, 246, 247, 248, 249, 250, 251, 252, 253, 254, 255, 256, 257, 258, 259, 260, 261, 262, 263, 264, 265, 266, 267, 268, 269, 270, 271, 272, 273, 274, 275, 276, 277, 278, 279, 280, 281, 282, 283, 284, 285, 286, 287, 288, 289, 290, 291, 292, 293, 294, 295, 296, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 302, 303, 304, 305, 306, 307, 308, 309, 310, 311, 312, 313, 314, 315, 316, 317, 318, 319, 320, 321, 322, 323, 324, 325, 326, 327, 328, 329, 330, 331, 332, 333, 334, 335, 336, 337, 338, 339, 340, 341, 342, 343, 344, 345, 346, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 352, 353, 354, 355, 356, 357, 358, 359, 360, 361, 362, 363, 364, 365, 366, 367, 368, 369, 370, 371, 372, 373, 374, 375, 376, 377, 378, 379, 380, 381, 382, 383, 384, 385, 386, 387, 388, 389, 390, 391, 392, 393, 394, 395, 396, 397, 398, 399, 400, 401, 402, 403, 404, 405, 406, 407, 408, 409, 410, 411, 412, 413, 414, 415, 416, 417, 418, 419, 420, 421, 422, 423, 424, 425, 426, 427, 428, 429, 430, 431, 432, 433, 434, 435, 436, 437, 438, 439, 440, 441, 442, 443, 444, 445, 446, 447, 448, 449, 450, 451, 452, 453, 454, 455, 456, 457, 458, 459, 460, 461, 462, 463, 464, 465, 466, 467, 468, 469, 470, 471, 472, 473, 474, 475, 476, 477, 478, 479, 480, 481, 482, 483, 484, 485, 486, 487, 488, 489, 490, 491, 492, 493, 494, 495, 496, 497, 498, 499, 500, 501, 502, 503, 504, 505, 506, 507, 508, 509, 510, 511, 512, 513, 514, 515, 516, 517, 518, 519, 520, 521, 522, 523, 524, 525, 526, 527, 528, 529, 530, 531, 532, 533, 534, 535, 536, 537, 538, 539, 540, 541, 542, 543, 544, 545, 546, 547, 548, 549, 550, 551, 552, 553, 554, 555, 556, 557, 558, 559, 560, 561, 562, 563, 564, 565, 566, 567, 568, 569, 570, 571, 572, 573, 574, 575, 576, 577, 578, 579, 580, 581, 582, 583, 584, 585, 586, 587, 588, 589, 590, 591, 592, 593, 594, 595, 596, 597, 598, 599, 600, 601, 602, 603, 604, 605, 606, 607, 608, 609, 610, 611, 612, 613, 614, 615, 616, 617, 618, 619, 620, 621, 622, 623, 624, 625, 626, 627, 628, 629, 630, 631, 632, 633, 634, 635, 636, 637, 638, 639, 640, 641, 642, 643, 644, 645, 646, 647, 648, 649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 654, 655, 656, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662, 663, 664, 665, 666, 667, 668, 669, 670, 671, 672, 673, 674, 675, 676, 677, 678, 679, 680, 681, 682, 683, 684, 685, 686, 687, 688, 689, 690, 691, 692, 693, 694, 695, 696, 697, 698, 699, 700, 701, 702, 703, 704, 705, 706, 707, 708, 709, 710, 711, 712, 713, 714, 715, 716, 717, 718, 719, 720, 721, 722, 723, 724, 725, 726, 727, 728, 729, 730, 731, 732, 733, 734, 735, 736, 737, 738, 739, 740, 741, 742, 743, 744, 745, 746, 747, 748, 749, 750, 751, 752, 753, 754, 755, 756, 757, 758, 759, 760, 761, 762, 763, 764, 765, 766, 767, 768, 769, 770, 771, 772, 773, 774, 775, 776, 777, 778, 779, 780, 781, 782, 783, 784, 785, 786, 787, 788, 789, 790, 791, 792, 793, 794, 795, 796, 797, 798, 799, 800, 801, 802, 803, 804, 805, 806, 807, 808, 809, 810, 811, 812, 813, 814, 815, 816, 817, 818, 819, 820, 821, 822, 823, 824, 825, 826, 827, 828, 829, 830, 831, 832, 833, 834, 835, 836, 837, 838, 839, 840, 841, 842

This is an important and well-presented study, and an excellent example of the application of the French School of Archaeology to the study of the past. The book is written in a clear and concise style, and is well illustrated with photographs and drawings. It is a valuable contribution to the study of the past, and is highly recommended for all those interested in the subject.

Stressors and Coping Mechanisms. By Roy Tapperson, M.D. Second edition. Pp.230. Chicago: Year B. & Medical Publishers Inc. Distributable in UK from John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. 1968. Price 6s.

This book, first published in 1962 and has now been widely accepted as the text of many of the courses in the rapidly expanding subject. It is particularly praised for its lucid style and its approach with understanding for the layman. Dr Roy Tapperson is Professor of Psychiatry, Columbia University, New York, and I suspect for the most of the chapters in this, and other, books during the period of the English occupation, he is a figure from folklore, with a positive reputation for his excellent and well thought out studies in the field of stressors and coping mechanisms.

It is refreshing to see a textbook dealing with developments in this field of psychology, and such obvious errors as a bibliography of the major books in the subject. The book is written in a way that makes the laboratory of modern anthropology really very simple. The author is anthropologist but not oriented, and he has a sense of humour. The language is pleasant and well expressed, but unfortunately all the other anthropologists are not so fortunate in a variety of anthropological subjects. It is right that the importance of the field should be emphasized as a subject of this kind, but which must contain the most of current and common sense differences. Anthropology was before. This is a good book, and deserves to be widely read. D.M.T.

The Human Factor. By The Hon. Sir J. B. Whitfield and Lieutenant Commander P.M. L. F. Morgan with a foreword by the Duke of Devon. Pp.172. London: John Macdonald and Sons Ltd. 1968. Price 6s.

The human factor of great part in any war has been all too often the subject of an anthropological study. In 1947 the War Office in London began a study of the human factor in war, and a small number of human scientists were asked to work on the subject. The study was completed in 1950 and the results of the study were published in the book. The book is a study of the human factor in war, and it is a study of the human factor in war.

Fortunately it was the human factor, especially exposed. The book is a study of the human factor in war, and it is a study of the human factor in war. The book is a study of the human factor in war, and it is a study of the human factor in war. The book is a study of the human factor in war, and it is a study of the human factor in war.

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Man and Society: A Study of Human Development. By T. Keith Lyle, Alexander G. Green, and Charles A. G. Cook. Third edition. Pp. 470. 1968. 1968. Price 6s.

The previous editions of this book have been noted for the clear and authoritative presentation of the material and the thoughtful attention to the subject. The expansion of the scope of the book has increased the scope of the book to include the study of the human factor in war.

There is a considerable loss to the study of the human factor in war, and it is a study of the human factor in war. The book is a study of the human factor in war, and it is a study of the human factor in war. The book is a study of the human factor in war, and it is a study of the human factor in war.

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Index of the Section

DECEASED

Surgeon Captain Samuel BRADSHAW, MD, MC, DPH, DMRG, died at Toronto on 7th June 1955. He was born on 15 June 1889 at Little Ferry, New York, and after studying at McGill at Queen's College, Belfast. He joined the Royal Navy as Surgeon in 1910. He served in the Falklands, Queen and Beaufort until 1917. Later in that year he went to RN Hospital Plymouth, at Portsmouth and Northfleet.

In 1917 he joined RNH General in the intermediate to RNH Directorate on 1/2.

After the war, in 1919, he returned to RN Hospital, Plymouth, as Assistant, and in 1920 was promoted to DPH. He served as DPH, Cape Town from 1921 to 1924, and then also he went to Scotland to Royal Marine Corps, the appointment to which he declined, most of his years. He joined RNH Directorate in 1927 as Assistant Medical Officer of the West Scotland Division of the Royal Navy.

He returned to Scotland as MBO in 1930 and was promoted Surgeon Captain in 1931. He went to RN College, Greenwich in 1932 as Professor of Hygiene and Director of Medical Studies and was promoted to Lieutenant in 1933 to 1935. He was placed on the Retired List on 30th May 1935.

In August 1935 he was recalled and took over 50 beds which constituted a busy war service on training at Royal Fleet, where a number of years later in the Fleet as a hospital ship. In 1941, he went to Plymouth as MBO and remained there till 1944, when he moved on to the Retired List.

After his return, with his commendable work, efficiency and release by other members of the Medical Service, of the Royal Navy. He was a large man who was strong and kindly, and made a pleasant impact on the minds of his staff as his work on Royal Marine Division and at the Royal Navy Hospital, Plymouth. He was a man of spirit, a leader of the Royal Navy, Royal Naval Medical Service, and a man of spirit. He was a man of spirit, a leader of the Royal Navy, Royal Naval Medical Service, and a man of spirit. He was a man of spirit, a leader of the Royal Navy, Royal Naval Medical Service, and a man of spirit.

He died on 7th June 1955 at Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

He was born on 15th June 1889 at Little Ferry, New York.

Surgeon Captain Charles Francis COLLINGS, MC, MD, DPH, MC, DPH, died suddenly on 19th September, 1944 at the age of 51. He was born on 15th March 1893.

He joined the Royal Navy as a Surgeon Lieutenant on 7th December 1913 and was promoted to Surgeon Lieutenant (Commander) on 1st December 1914 to Surgeon Lieutenant on 7th December 1914 and to Surgeon Captain on 10th June 1917. He was placed on the Retired List on March 1918.

Surgeon Captain Collings was awarded the DSO in December 1918 for his services in the South African War. He was awarded the DSO in December 1918 for his services in the South African War. He was awarded the DSO in December 1918 for his services in the South African War.

Surgeon Captain (Lt) John Ramsey PALMER, MC, LIA, MC, died on 20th September, 1944 at the age of 51.

He joined the Royal Navy as a Surgeon Lieutenant (Lt) on 10th August 1914, being promoted Surgeon Lieutenant (Commander) on 10th August 1918 and Surgeon Lieutenant (Lt) on 10th August 1918. He was placed on the Retired List on 10th August 1918. He was placed on the Retired List on 10th August 1918. He was placed on the Retired List on 10th August 1918.

Surgeon Captain (Lt) John Edward DANIELS, MC, LIA, MC, died on 10th July, 1944 at the age of 51.

He was born on 10th August 1893 and studied at Adelaide School. He was born on 10th August 1893 and studied at Adelaide School. He was born on 10th August 1893 and studied at Adelaide School. He was born on 10th August 1893 and studied at Adelaide School.

Commissioned as a Surgeon Lieutenant (Lt) in 1913, he was attached to the 1st, Division of the Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve and served in WWI. He was attached to the 1st, Division of the Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve and served in WWI. He was attached to the 1st, Division of the Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve and served in WWI.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS

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Figure 1

W. F. and J. L. have obtained the Post Graduate Diploma in Philosophy of Education from the University of London.

1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021, 2022, 2023, 2024, 2025, 2026, 2027, 2028, 2029, 2030, 2031, 2032, 2033, 2034, 2035, 2036, 2037, 2038, 2039, 2040, 2041, 2042, 2043, 2044, 2045, 2046, 2047, 2048, 2049, 2050, 2051, 2052, 2053, 2054, 2055, 2056, 2057, 2058, 2059, 2060, 2061, 2062, 2063, 2064, 2065, 2066, 2067, 2068, 2069, 2070, 2071, 2072, 2073, 2074, 2075, 2076, 2077, 2078, 2079, 2080, 2081, 2082, 2083, 2084, 2085, 2086, 2087, 2088, 2089, 2090, 2091, 2092, 2093, 2094, 2095, 2096, 2097, 2098, 2099, 2100, 2101, 2102, 2103, 2104, 2105, 2106, 2107, 2108, 2109, 2110, 2111, 2112, 2113, 2114, 2115, 2116, 2117, 2118, 2119, 2120, 2121, 2122, 2123, 2124, 2125, 2126, 2127, 2128, 2129, 2130, 2131, 2132, 2133, 2134, 2135, 2136, 2137, 2138, 2139, 2140, 2141, 2142, 2143, 2144, 2145, 2146, 2147, 2148, 2149, 2150, 2151, 2152, 2153, 2154, 2155, 2156, 2157, 2158, 2159, 2160, 2161, 2162, 2163, 2164, 2165, 2166, 2167, 2168, 2169, 2170, 2171, 2172, 2173, 2174, 2175, 2176, 2177, 2178, 2179, 2180, 2181, 2182, 2183, 2184, 2185, 2186, 2187, 2188, 2189, 2190, 2191, 2192, 2193, 2194, 2195, 2196, 2197, 2198, 2199, 2200, 2201, 2202, 2203, 2204, 2205, 2206, 2207, 2208, 2209, 2210, 2211, 2212, 2213, 2214, 2215, 2216, 2217, 2218, 2219, 2220, 2221, 2222, 2223, 2224, 2225, 2226, 2227, 2228, 2229, 2230, 2231, 2232, 2233, 2234, 2235, 2236, 2237, 2238, 2239, 2240, 2241, 2242, 2243, 2244, 2245, 2246, 2247, 2248, 2249, 2250, 2251, 2252, 2253, 2254, 2255, 2256, 2257, 2258, 2259, 2260, 2261, 2262, 2263, 2264, 2265, 2266, 2267, 2268, 2269, 2270, 2271, 2272, 2273, 2274, 2275, 2276, 2277, 2278, 2279, 2280, 2281, 2282, 2283, 2284, 2285, 2286, 2287, 2288, 2289, 2290, 2291, 2292, 2293, 2294, 2295, 2296, 2297, 2298, 2299, 2300, 2301, 2302, 2303, 2304, 2305, 2306, 2307, 2308, 2309, 2310, 2311, 2312, 2313, 2314, 2315, 2316, 2317, 2318, 2319, 2320, 2321, 2322, 2323, 2324, 2325, 2326, 2327, 2328, 2329, 2330, 2331, 2332, 2333, 2334, 2335, 2336, 2337, 2338, 2339, 2340, 2341, 2342, 2343, 2344, 2345, 2346, 2347, 2348, 2349, 2350, 2351, 2352, 2353, 2354, 2355, 2356, 2357, 2358, 2359, 2360, 2361, 2362, 2363, 2364, 2365, 2366, 2367, 2368, 2369, 2370, 2371, 2372, 2373, 2374, 2375, 2376, 2377, 2378, 2379, 2380, 2381, 2382, 2383, 2384, 2385, 2386, 2387, 2388, 2389, 2390, 2391, 2392, 2393, 2394, 2395, 2396, 2397, 2398, 2399, 2400, 2401, 2402, 2403, 2404, 2405, 2406, 2407, 2408, 2409, 2410, 2411, 2412, 2413, 2414, 2415, 2416, 2417, 2418, 2419, 2420, 2421, 2422, 2423, 2424, 2425, 2426, 2427, 2428, 2429, 2430, 2431, 2432, 2433, 2434, 2435, 2436, 2437, 2438, 2439, 2440, 2441, 2442, 2443, 2444, 2445, 2446, 2447, 2448, 2449, 2450, 2451, 2452, 2453, 2454, 2455, 2456, 2457, 2458, 2459, 2460, 2461, 2462, 2463, 2464, 2465, 2466, 2467, 2468, 2469, 2470, 2471, 2472, 2473, 2474, 2475, 2476, 2477, 2478, 2479, 2480, 2481, 2482, 2483, 2484, 2485, 2486, 2487, 2488, 2489, 2490, 2491, 2492, 2493, 2494, 2495, 2496, 2497, 2498, 2499, 2500, 2501, 2502, 2503, 2504, 2505, 2506, 2507, 2508, 2509, 2510, 2511, 2512, 2513, 2514, 2515, 2516, 2517, 2518, 2519, 2520, 2521, 2522, 2523, 2524, 2525, 2526, 2527, 2528, 2529, 2530, 2531, 2532, 2533, 2534, 2535, 2536, 2537, 2538, 2539, 2540, 2541, 2542, 2543, 2544, 2545, 2546, 2547, 2548, 2549, 2550, 2551, 2552, 2553, 2554, 2555, 2556, 2557, 2558, 2559, 2560, 2561, 2562, 2563, 2564, 2565, 2566, 2567, 2568, 2569, 2570, 2571, 2572, 2573, 2574, 2575, 2576, 2577, 2578, 2579, 2580, 2581, 2582, 2583, 2584, 2585, 2586, 2587, 2588, 2589, 2590, 2591, 2592, 2593, 2594, 2595, 2596, 2597, 2598, 2599, 2600, 2601, 2602, 2603, 2604, 2605, 2606, 2607, 2608, 2609, 2610, 2611, 2612, 2613, 2614, 2615, 2616, 2617, 2618, 2619, 2620, 2621, 2622, 2623, 2624, 2625, 2626, 2627, 2628, 2629, 2630, 2631, 2632, 2633, 2634, 2635, 2636, 2637, 2638, 2639, 2640, 2641, 2642, 2643, 2644, 2645, 2646, 2647, 2648, 2649, 2650, 2651, 2652, 2653, 2654, 2655, 2656, 2657, 2658, 2659, 2660, 2661, 2662, 2663, 2664, 2665, 2666, 2667, 2668, 2669, 2670, 2671, 2672, 2673, 2674, 2675, 2676, 2677, 2678, 2679, 2680, 26

To Westminster Council: T. E. Clarke
To Westminster Council: J. Lewis, G. Lewis, M. L. W. Poyser

Age Group	Total (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)
18-24	100	100	100	100	100
25-34	100	100	100	100	100
35-44	100	100	100	100	100
45-54	100	100	100	100	100
55-64	100	100	100	100	100
65+	100	100	100	100	100

Wardenscope	Comstock, J. L. Michigan	WIM
Wardenscope	Comstock, Comstock, G. A. Michigan	WIM
Wardenscope	Leptin, H. Illinois	
Wardenscope	Leptin, H. Illinois	

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Figure 1 consists of two bar charts. The left chart shows the percentage of respondents for 'No', 'Yes', and 'Don't know' categories. The right chart shows the percentage of respondents for 'No', 'Yes', and 'Don't know' categories.

Meeting Hosts: P. M. Egan, L. Polini, J. Murray, S. H. Poon, R. J. Hark, P. Q. Huang,
M. P. Davis, J. P. Cava, T. A. Tansworth, V. Challa, V. J. Rizzo, R. G. Nelson

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1146 *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 26(6)

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To Supreme Commander, US II E. Thross, 445 W. 44 Madison, 445

100

Sergio Cordero M. B. A. Postgraduate MEd PhD
 Sergio Cordero M. B. A. Postgraduate MEd PhD
 Sergio Cordero M. B. A. Postgraduate MEd PhD
 Sergio Cordero M. B. A. Postgraduate MEd PhD

[illegible]

100% 100% 100% 100% 100% 100%

The second common type of paper should read: "In almost one square of square centimeters, when carefully examined, [inserts higher word], is found on the [insert cell name, with plural] pattern of the [insert] [inserts higher word]. This demonstrates, in only [insert] out of [insert] cases of neurofibromas, as the remaining ones the common variable were less than N_{95} in frequency and less variable for the pattern."



Index

Authors

BAKE, R. The Root Cell as an Indicator of Maxillary Growth	147
BARNES, W. L. A Study of Brachyodonts in Human Permanent Teeth	155
BELLET, D. H. The Root, Crown Coverage, in the Treatment of Decayed Permanent Teeth	4
BELLET, F. P. The Health of the Mouth in the Post War Years	11
BENNETT, W. A Study of Brachyodonts in Human Permanent Teeth	151
BENNETT, R. H. Post-Orthodontic Treatment	100
BENNETT, R. L. A Study of Brachyodonts in Human Permanent Teeth	151
BENNETT, J. M. F. A Case of Brachyodonts	151
BENNETT, C. D. and C. The Position of the Public in Relation to the Use of Radiographs	104
BENNETT, G. R. A Case of Maxillary Tumor of the Bone	107
BENNETT, W. H. Clinical Experiments with Root	149
BENNETT, R. V. A Case of Brachyodonts	151
BENNETT, F. A Study of the Management of Uncomplicated Gull Groups	143
BENNETT, F. H. Letter to the Editor	105
BENNETT, L. F. Bone in the Crown Root	144
BENNETT, J. W. A Case of Epithelioid, Metastatic, Epithelioid, Maxillary Tumor	100
BENNETT, P. A. P. Young Unborn Babies in Children	154
BENNETT, G. H. Psychiatric Abnormalities	151
BENNETT, W. H. T. Clinical Experiments with Root	149
BENNETT, G. R. B. Clinical Experiments with Root	147
BENNETT, S. The Case of the Infant in Adverse Conditions	107
BENNETT, J. T. Anomalous Eruption in Premolars?	100
BENNETT, R. J. Eruption in Maxilla	107
BENNETT, A. J. Handedness and the Development of the Mandible	119
BENNETT, S. G. The Problem of the Medical Supervision of Land Workers	49
BENNETT, J. H. A Case of Brachyodonts	151
BENNETT, N. L. Letter. Pulpal Necrosis following the Extraction of Adenoids in Relation to Malocclusion	142
BENNETT, W. H. A Study of Brachyodonts in Human Permanent Teeth	151
BENNETT, J. D. A Study of Root and Mouth Cancer (Epithelioid)	10
BENNETT, A. H. Brachyodonts, Maxillary Tumor, A Study of the Problem of the Medical Supervision of Land Workers	100
BENNETT, E. J. G. A Case of Epithelioid, Metastatic, Epithelioid, Maxillary Tumor	100
BENNETT, G. G. Psychiatric Abnormalities	107
BENNETT, G. G. Letter to the Editor	105
BENNETT, L. T. Psychiatric Abnormalities	107
BENNETT, J. Handedness and the Development of the Mandible	119
BENNETT, P. H. Tumor of the Maxilla in the Infant	100
BENNETT, P. H. Tumor of the Maxilla in the Infant	100
BENNETT, G. H. The History and Development of the Medical Services of the Dental Council	10

<i>Asymptomatic Bacteremia in Pneumonia?</i>	763
<i>Asiology of Cholelithiasis: The</i>	373
<i>Bands: Current Concepts in the Treatment of Duodenal- Jejunal</i>	162
<i>Bellarmine in Medicine</i>	227
<i>Burkholder's Fever: A Case of</i>	171
<i>Care of the Injured in Adverse Conditions: The</i>	215
<i>Care of Mixed Salivary Tumour of the Pituitary</i>	267
<i>Edwards</i>	2
<i>Erythema Multiforme Exudativum (Stevens-Johnson Syndrome): A Case of</i>	219
<i>Ford: Chemical Experiments with</i>	145
<i>Foot and Mouth Disease (Epizootic Aphtha): A Note on</i>	35
<i>Gold Stains: The Management of Uncomplicated</i>	185
<i>Health of the Navy in the Post-War Years: The</i>	12
<i>History and Development of the Medical Services of HMS Despatch Chatham 1815-1954: The</i>	25
<i>Hypothermia: Oxygen Therapy: Review of the Present Position and Experiences in the Management of Naval Patients</i>	191
<i>Letters to the Editor</i>	115
<i>Neuro of the Nervous</i>	52
<i>Pharyngeal Manifestations Following the Inhalation of Arsenic in Relation to Malignant Change</i>	145
<i>Post-Cholecystectomy Problems</i>	269
<i>Problems of the Medical Supervision of Land Workers: The</i>	68
<i>Psychiatric Abnormalities</i>	153
<i>Psychiatric Perceptions</i>	58
<i>Radioactive Materials: Protection of the Public in Relation to the Use of</i>	258
<i>Red Cell as Indicator of Thermal Damage: The</i>	263
<i>Reviews</i>	15
<i>Royal Naval Hospital Malta: Improvements in the</i>	93
<i>Royal Navy Medical Club Dinner, 1945: The</i>	153
<i>Scurvy in the Cyrenaica Desert</i>	196
<i>Sirovica-Wu in Human Pericoronary Tissue: A Study of</i>	222
<i>Vascular Disease in the Royal Navy: Treatment of</i>	254
<i>Vocal Cord Reflex in Children</i>	155
<i>White Cell Count in Human Semen: Findings in the Diagnosis of Prostatitis</i>	254







the 1990s, the number of people with a mental health problem has increased by 50% (Mental Health Foundation 2000).

There is a growing awareness of the need to address the needs of people with mental health problems, and the importance of providing them with appropriate services. The National Institute for Mental Health (NIMH) has identified the need for a 'new paradigm' in mental health care, one that is based on a holistic approach to the individual, and that takes account of the social and cultural context of the person's life. This new paradigm is based on the following principles: (1) the individual is the centre of the system; (2) the system is based on the individual's needs; (3) the system is based on the individual's strengths; (4) the system is based on the individual's culture; (5) the system is based on the individual's community; (6) the system is based on the individual's family; (7) the system is based on the individual's social network; (8) the system is based on the individual's environment; (9) the system is based on the individual's life; (10) the system is based on the individual's future.

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